REPORT RESUMES

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CHINESE--LISTENING, SPEAKING, READING, WRITING--GRADES 6-12.

BY- HSU, KAI-YU AND OTHERS

CALIFORNIA STATE DEPT. OF EDUCATION, SACRAMENTO

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THIS IS THE THIRD IN A SERIES OF LANGUAGE GUIDES DEVELOPED AND WRITTEN BY STATEWIDE COMMITTEES UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE CALIFORNIA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. A COMPANION VOLUME TO THIS GUIDE IS "LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION--PERSPECTIVE AND PROSPECTUS," PREPARED BY NELSON BROOKS, CHARLES F. HOCKETT, AND EVERETT V. O'ROURKE, 1963. A 1964 SURVEY SHOWED 19 CALIFORNIA ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND 16 UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES OFFERING COURSES IN CHINESE, DEMONSTRATING THE HIGH INTEREST IN CHINESE LANGUAGE STUDIES IN THIS STATE. THIS GUIDE WAS WRITTEN TO SERVE AS AN AID TO SUPERVISORS AND TEACHERS IN ORGANIZING AND ADMINISTERING BEGINNING CHINESE LANGUAGE PROGRAMS BASED ON THE AUDIOLINGUAL METHOD. CHAPTERS INCLUDE--(1) VALUE AND SELECTION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES, (2) GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES, (3) BASIC PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING MANDARIN CHINESE, (4) METHODOLOGY, (5) THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY, AND (6) TESTING AND EVALUATING. APPENDICES GIVE SELECTED REFERENCE LISTS AND OUTLINES OF THE MANDARIN CHINESE SOUND SYSTEM, STRUCTURAL PATTERNS, AND ROMANIZATION SYSTEMS. FURTHER INFORMATION ON THIS BOOKLET MAY BE OBTAINED FROM THE OFFICE OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, CALIFORNIA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, 721 CAPITOL MALL, SACRAMENTO, CALIFORNIA 95814. (JD)

Chinese

listening 聽

說 speaking

reading 讀

寫 writing

ED014052

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CALIFORNIA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Max Rafferty—Superintendent of Public Instruction
Sacramento 1967

FL 000 693

Chinese

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Prepared under the direction of

EVERETT V. O'ROURKE
Acting Chief, Bureau of Elementary
and Secondary Education
California State Department of Education

By the following committee

KAI-YU HSU, Chairman
Professor of Humanities and Foreign Languages
San Francisco State College

SHAU WING CHAN
Professor of Chinese
Stanford University

THEODORE H. E. CHEN
Director, East Asian Studies Center
University of Southern California

GEORGE G. STREM
Professor Emeritus of Foreign Languages
Chico State College

HENRY YANG
Assistant Professor of Foreign Languages
San Francisco State College

RICHARD M. CLOWES
Superintendent
Burbank Unified School District

FRANK B. LINDSAY (deceased)
Chief, Bureau of Secondary Education
California State Department of Education

Foreword

California, the nation's gateway to Asia and sociologically and historically Occidental and Oriental, recognizes the need for cultural and linguistic, as well as economic and political, relationships with Far Eastern members of the Pacific community. The State Legislature in 1965 encouraged Chinese instruction in the elementary and secondary schools by specific statute in the California Education Code. The federal government and private organizations have financed and are financing institutes, workshops, and projects to train teachers of the Chinese language and to develop and publish instructional materials on the language and the culture. The growing number of schools in California and in other states that include Chinese language in their curriculums attests to the fact that there is interest and need.

Therefore, it is fitting that the State Department of Education should publish and make available to the schools of California a guide for teaching the Chinese language and culture. I urge more schools to consider introducing the study of the Chinese language and culture into their curriculums to increase youth's understanding of the Orient.

Max Rafferty

Superintendent of Public Instruction

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Preface

Chinese: Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing is the third in a series of language guides developed and written by statewide committees under the direction of the California State Department of Education. A companion volume to this series is Language Instruction: Perspective and Prospectus.

Like its predecessors, the Chinese guide recommends the audiolingual approach to language teaching. Examination of the guide reveals that Mandarin presents no more learning difficulties than any other language. The Chinese characters can be learned with the same study techniques used to learn any writing symbol system different from that of one's native language.

The Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education and the Bureau of National Defense Education Act Administration of the Division of Instruction, California State Department of Education, present this publication as an aid to teachers of Chinese language and culture. The Department is appreciative of the contributions made by the members of the planning committee and the many other educators who have given their time and knowledge to make this publication possible. Dr. Hsu, chairman of the committee, deserves special acknowledgement for his devotion to the task of planning, developing, and writing this publication.

DONALD E. KITCH
Acting Chief
Division of Instruction

EVERETT V. O'ROURKE
Acting Chief
Bureau of Elementary and
Secondary Education

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Chapter 1

Value and Selection of Foreign Languages

外文的選擇及價值

The objective of education is to prepare man to function effectively throughout his life so that he can derive lasting satisfaction from his role in the society of man. The modern world demands that man communicate with his fellow men in a rapidly increasing variety of ways. One important and direct way is through spoken and written languages.

The Importance of Learning Foreign Languages

Every student should avail himself of the opportunity to learn at least one major foreign language for its practical utility as well as for the intellectual benefit and acculturation it brings to the user. If the student plans a career requiring knowledge of a foreign language, he will need to be able to understand, speak, read, and write the language. If he plans to use a foreign language for the study of literature, his oral proficiency will give him an advantage. Even if he intends to use the foreign language only in reading technical and scientific documents, he will be much better off for having acquired the four basic skills: listening-comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing.

What is often overlooked but needs to be emphasized is the nonutilitarian value of knowing a foreign language. The very experience of learning a foreign language enables the student to acquire an empathy with its native speakers which is indispensable to real intercultural understanding.

It has been said that language training, like instruction in many other subject areas, has to be differentiated according to the precise objective the student has for studying the language. Consequently, there has been some exploration of different types of language programs at certain levels. However, while the language needs of a diplomat clearly differ from those of an automotive engineer, effective performance requires a basic core of language discipline. This core is the main concern of precollege language programs.

Many types of specialized language training, to meet the needs of a given assignment, can be acquired through a crash program of relatively short duration; lasting control of a foreign language, however, requires a sustained sequence of learning over a period of time. The sooner the student can begin to learn a second language, the better are his chances to master the language to a degree that will truly benefit him. If a student starts his study of a foreign language early and continues without interruption, upon graduation from high school he should have a command of the language adequate to allow him to do advanced study or to hold jobs which require that language. Furthermore, if the student is interested, he will find it possible to begin learning a second foreign language in the senior high school and a third foreign language in college, without retarding his progress in the first.

This premise is based on recent experience in foreign language instruction: Improved instructional materials and methods are available in many major languages, and highly specialized teachers are increasingly available to guide students through an extended sequence according to a planned curriculum, which has been tested by teachers and students.

Which Languages Should Be Taught in Public Schools

According to a recent study, ten modern languages in addition to English are considered of greatest importance to the American public.[1] These are: Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Hindi, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish. They are important because of their political and practical utility in the world of today, their rich literary and aesthetic stores, and the amount of accumulated human experience and wisdom embodied in them.

Many of the nation's high schools have started teaching one foreign language, but very few are offering all ten of these major modern languages. A school's decision to add one or more of the ten "important" foreign languages to its curriculum is governed by many factors. The healthy growth of the existing foreign language program remains the first concern. The availability of teachers and the cultivation of student interest are equally critical. These problems can be, and are being, solved in many school districts in ways most suited to local conditions.

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[1] Language Instruction: Perspective and Prospectus. Prepared by Nelson Brooks, Charles F. Hockett, and Everett V. O'Rourke. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXXII, No. 4, November, 1963. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1963, p. 4.

Chapter 2

General Principles of Teaching Foreign Languages

In recent years language teaching and learning have benefited a great deal from classroom experience and study of linguistic science, educational psychology, and other behavioral sciences. Even those language teachers who continue to regard the belletristic application of a language as the sole objective have come to recognize the contribution of the behavioral sciences to effective foreign language instruction. Although few of the scientists in these fields would assert that they have found the final answers to problems in language instruction, the practical experience of foreign language teachers has tended to support certain conclusions which have important bearing on foreign language programs:

1. It has been clearly established that a student who begins to learn a language early and continues his study through a long sequence accomplishes much more than one who starts late in his school career.

2. Although no special aptitude or intelligence for language learning has been scientifically ascertained, a student who is doing well in most of his school subjects is likely to become a good student in a language class. As in any other course of study, strong and persistent motivation appears to be one of the more reliable determinants in predicting a student's achievement in a language course. It is particularly important to recognize that a favorable attitude in the

family and the community toward the culture represented by the foreign language is influential in motivating a student of the language toward successful achievement. Other than these valid general considerations for a student of any foreign language, there is no special prerequisite for a student of Chinese.

3. Language is a highly complex system of human behavior. A language can be learned best if it is divided into basic phonetic and syntactic units or patterns to be learned through drill and practice according to a proper progression.

4. The solution of the problem of interlingual confusion and interference lies principally in the way the language is taught and practiced. Teaching a language by translating it into the student's mother tongue tends to compound interlingual confusion. If the student, however, learns a foreign language by associating it directly with its reference without using his mother tongue, his progress will not be seriously hampered by the necessity of using his mother tongue during other hours of the day.

5. Experiments have proved that the scores of bilingual students are far superior to monolingual students on both verbal and nonverbal tests of intelligence.[1]

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[1] For further discussion on this point, see Wallace E. Lambert, "Psychological Approaches to Second Language Learning and Bilingualism," in Curricular Change in the Foreign Languages. Princeton, N. J.: College Entrance Examination Board, 1963, pp. 23-31. The many sources cited in this article are also worth noting.

The conclusions just cited suffice to point out the general principles that must be observed if a language program is to be effective: (1) early start and continuation of language study; (2) motivation; and (3) drill and practice of syntactic patterns in the target language without recourse to the student's native language. These general principles, as well as the basic principles which follow, support the validity of what has become known as the audiolingual (listening-speaking) approach to language teaching rather than the visual-graphic (reading-writing) approach.

The Nature of Language

The spoken language is primarily a series of sounds arranged according to a cultural convention in order to convey meaning. The written language, its stylistic variations notwithstanding, is but a system of transcription of the spoken language. Therefore, learning a foreign language should begin with the acquisition of the set of speech habits peculiar to it.

As habits have to be formed by performing rather than by being told about a performance, the teacher should first aim at cultivating basic, subconscious, sensory-motor reflexes from which conscious, highly reflective work in the language can proceed. The process leads the students through the stages of recognition, imitation, repetition, variation, selection, and recombination. As the process proceeds step by step, the students further learn to select from previously learned patterns of sounds in order to express themselves freely. Their expressions will readily conform to the conventions of the language because they have first learned the structures in total patterns and not in segments of vocabulary.

No language can convey meaning fully, or even adequately, if the meaning of its sounds or its written symbols is not conveyed immediately to the mind of the listener or reader. Therefore, it is imperative that the language instructor address himself to training for habits of automatic and immediate responses; it is further imperative that, for such training, the language instructor recognize the major roles of both the audiolingual and the visual-graphic areas of language habits.

A third area of language habits, which has been neglected until recent years involves kinesics (conventional facial expressions, hand gestures, and other body movements) and paralanguage (vocal intonations), which are inseparable from the spoken aspect of a natural language. The fact that this area has been neglected must not diminish its importance in an effective program of language instruction. Just as pattern drills in sound and syntax are indispensable in helping students acquire the necessary audiolingual habits, gestures and vocal intonations that accompany a native speaker's natural speech are necessary in teaching the total pattern of the language.

The Use of Grammar

Grammar is the body of rules governing the phenomena within a language. The knowledge of grammar alone does not indicate ability to use a language, but its conventions aid students in their efforts to form correct habits of language usage. Analysis of grammar can help more advanced students discover where they err as they depart from the language convention. However, thorough analysis of a language belongs to a rather advanced stage of study, which comes after mastery of the basic sentence patterns.

The teacher of a language class in its beginning stages must refrain from using much class time to explain grammar; time is needed for active drills and exercises. He must confine himself to explaining briefly the functions of the most commonly encountered words and the most basic grammatical features of the language, which are revealed as generalizations derived from sentence patterns. By using models and pointing out the patterns, the teacher shows the students how to grasp the paradigms (conjugations, declensions, and modal variations, according to function) with which the students can vary their speech by analogy with the basic patterns. A brief comment on word function can go a long way in helping the students to observe the way the language behaves and thereby to distinguish more readily the meaning of each utterance. In explaining grammar, the teacher rarely needs to go beyond ascertaining that his students know what they are doing with the language, not why they are arranging the sounds in a certain order.

Influenced by their discipline in other fields of learning, many students, especially the more mature ones, are inclined to insist on finding some logic in the structure of a language which has no logic comparable to that of their mother tongue. This tendency has led many teachers and students to use grammar as a crutch. Remembering the intricate rules of a language does not enable students to use that language with proficiency; the teacher must not treat grammar as the main concern.

Levels of Learning

The progress of students in foreign language study can be defined by levels of learning, as has been recommended by the State Department of Education:

> The boundaries between successive levels must be recognized as somewhat arbitrary, since the learning of a language is in a sense continuous and unending. However, it is possible to specify approximately what should be achieved by the end of each level. This achievement can neither be described nor tested in terms of the amount of time the learner has spent in class or the number of pages he has "covered" in the textbook. . . .[2]

Therefore, the quantity of work assigned to a level is the amount of learning that can be reasonably expected in a class that meets regularly five periods a week for one school year. The quantity of work is further defined as a given number of structures in the use of which the students achieve reasonable success, despite the amount of time spent on the level and despite the grade in which the level is begun.

Establishing the various levels of learning necessitates organizing the language into learning units of grammatical items and vocabularly blocks. The sentence patterns should be grouped and arranged according to their relative ease or complexity and particularly according to the frequency of their appearance. Vocabulary should be grouped according to basic situations, always beginning with the most common. Before these learning units have been appropriately ascertained, however, an index of progression can be obtained by determining the types and levels of material deemed appropriate to each stage of progression and by computing the number of structures, morphemes, and vocabulary items introduced by the materials. The six levels of learning commonly used in teaching the Western languages must be adapted for teaching Chinese.[3]

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[2] Language Instruction: Perspective and Prospectus. Prepared by Nelson Brooks, Charles F. Hockett, and Everett V. O'Rourke. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXXII, No. 4, November, 1963. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1963, pp. 23-24.

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[3] *Ibid.*, p. 24.

Chapter 3

Basic Principles of Teaching Mandarin Chinese

國語基本教學原則

As the world "shrinks," the need to know foreign languages expands. In the United States, it is always advantageous to try to achieve educational breadth and balance by offering a language that stems from a cultural tradition different from that of the West.

The Role of Chinese in the Foreign Language Program

Among the non-Western languages, Chinese deserves special attention by virtue of the importance of Chinese culture and Chinese influence in the vast areas of East Asia. Spoken by approximately 600 million people, Mandarin Chinese is the door to the minds of all people in East Asia; it is the basis for the written language of 100 million Japanese and 38 million Koreans, and it has had a decisive influence on all the languages of Southeast Asia. Chinese has been included among the six languages given top priority in the Language Development Program of the U. S. Office of Education, under the provisions of the National Defense Education Act. In California, the State Department of Education has initiated action--through an Advisory Committee on Chinese Language Instruction in California Public Schools--to plan for the development of Chinese language programs, particularly programs in Mandarin.

Chinese, like all other living languages, began as a spoken language which, through centuries of evolution, developed many regional variations. Some of these variations have become major dialects, of which Mandarin, with slight subdialectal variations, is spoken by over 90 percent of the Chinese people. Since the turn of the century, nationwide campaigns in China to teach Mandarin as the national language (Kuo Yu) have been making steady progress. Today, in mainland China and in Taiwan, Mandarin has become the only standard medium of communication. Although Chinese dialects are still spoken in certain regions, as well as in Chinese communities in the United States, the use of Mandarin is spreading everywhere.

The authors believe that it is feasible and necessary to increase the teaching of Mandarin in California public schools for the following reasons:

- California's geographic location makes this state the nation's gateway to Asia. The most populous state in the Union, with its historical and sociological relation to the Orient, California should take the lead in improving understanding among the peoples of the Pacific.

- As the need for foreign language skills become critical in government service, the armed forces, and private industry, the need to know an Asian language will be felt more keenly in California than in any other state.

- Chinese is no longer considered an exotic language, taught only by a handful of specialists even at the college level. A survey taken in 1964 revealed that 19 elementary and secondary schools in California were offering Chinese.[1] Over 60 American universities and colleges, of which 16 are in California, now offer programs in Chinese.[2] Because the number of such programs is constantly increasing, students who start their Chinese language study in public schools will be able to continue at the college level.

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[1] Survey completed in February, 1965, by the Carnegie Chinese Project, San Francisco State College.

- Of even greater significance is the fact that virtually all American institutions of higher learning now accept credits in Chinese toward fulfilling their language requirements for entrance or graduation.

Chinese Language and Culture

Culture is the total life experience of a people; their arts, literature, and philosophical systems, and so forth, are but expressions of their culture. As the most direct and effective medium in which human experience is communicated, language forms an integral and central part of a culture, expressing the intellectual, psychological, moral, and physical behavior of the people in that culture.

The Chinese language reflects the Chinese hierarchy of values, Chinese attitudes, Chinese concepts concerning ethical boundaries and influences upon the behavior and fortune of man. The subtle but significant differences between the ways the

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[2] American Academy of Asian Studies (San Francisco); Claremont Graduate School; Long Beach City College; Los Angeles City College; Merritt College (Oakland); Monterey Peninsula College; Pasadena City College; Pomona College; San Fernando Valley State College; San Francisco State College; Stanford University; University of California, Berkeley; University of California, Los Angeles; University of California, Santa Barbara; University of the Pacific; and University of Southern California.

Chinese people act in their world and the ways the Americans do in theirs are revealed very clearly even by some of the most ordinary (but hard to translate) expressions, greetings, and platitudes. Such differences between peoples can be fully appreciated through an understanding of their languages.

Caution must be taken, however, in presenting any sample from the culture as typically and universally Chinese. Regionalism and social stratification create wide variations in Chinese patterns of behavior. Two other factors in modern Chinese culture that cannot be overemphasized are its complexity and fluidity. Much in the Chinese way of life has been changing rapidly, particularly in the twentieth century, but modern Chinese culture contains both changing and unchanging aspects. For example, varying degrees of exposure to Western ideas have caused adjustments in Chinese concepts about family; yet, Chinese children continue to address their brothers and sisters in terms of kinship instead of personal names. Furthermore, Chinese children still extend to their elders a measure of respect greater than that expected in American society. Thus, traditional cultural patterns reveal themselves through the medium of language.

Students learning Chinese or any foreign language will acquire new attitudes as they acquire understanding of another culture, attitudes earnestly sought by educators in their effort to bring about world understanding and world peace.

Integration of Chinese with Other Subjects

With an increasing interest in the non-Western world, American education has already started incorporating more material on China in the curriculum at various levels. It is no longer unusual to find units on Asia, including a substantial amount of information about China, in a high school history course. Even at the elementary school level, the teacher of Chinese can work with the teacher of the social sciences to integrate and coordinate content, thereby strengthening both courses.

At any level, the language teacher will find it profitable to correlate his classwork with that of his social science colleague teaching Chinese customs the next period or the next day. By the same token, art and music teachers can contribute to, and benefit from, the language program. If students in the Chinese language class are discussing the experience of going to a Chinese theater, for example, their learning gains depth and meaning if their teachers of art and music also discuss similar or related topics in their respective classes. Because Chinese culture has contributed much to the world's knowledge and experience in home economics, industrial arts, and other subjects in a public school curriculum, these subject matter areas, as well, can be integrated with Chinese language instruction to give the students greater benefit. Even physical education and recreation have their proper places in integrated instruction. Modern Chinese culture has adopted many American sports and entertainments; but in turn, it can also contribute much to enrich these activities in American schools.

It is no longer visionary to think about using a foreign language to teach nonlanguage subjects in American schools. Spanish, for example, has been used successfully in teaching biology, arithmetic, music, and history in American schools. As suitable materials for these subjects become available in

Chinese, integrated instruction will move forward to keep pace with improved education in a steadily changing world.

Suggested Curricular Sequences

In order to acquire a truly useful command of the Chinese language, students should first be able to distinguish its sounds and to reproduce them accurately. This skill will aid them in acquiring fluent speech. Next, they will match the basic speech patterns they have learned with their written counterparts. This learning experience will enable them to read current newspapers, magazines, and books and, eventually, classical literature. Chinese literature is among the richest in the world. Although much of it is in the classical style requiring strenuous study before it can be fully understood, there is no reason why students cannot learn to read and enjoy, at a rather early stage, some Chinese literary works written in simple styles. Finally, students will acquire the ability to communicate proficiently in writing at a level commensurate with their experience and individual needs.

The basic objectives of teaching Chinese as a modern, living language are the same, then, as those for the commonly taught European languages: listening-comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing, all learned within the cultural framework of the people who speak the language. However, Chinese, because it is less familiar to Americans than European languages, needs to be taught in specially adapted curricular sequences and levels.

In the chart of suggested curricular sequences (page 21) grades have been used to indicate chronological sequence; they may be adapted to specific time allotments and class schedules within the school day or week. The chart also shows the percent of total time to be devoted to each different type of activity, the number of basic sentence patterns, the number of morphemes, the number of vocabulary items, and the number of characters. The vocabulary items include both simple morphemes and compounds. The parenthesized figures, which are cumulative, show the number of morphemes, vocabulary items, and characters to be acquired as each sequence progresses.

The time of study referred to in the chart is the percent of the total time allocated to language instruction. Public school schedules for foreign language classes vary a great deal. The amount of material suggested for each grade, or level, in the sequence of the chart is based upon the general practice of three periods per week of about 20 minutes each in grades six, seven, and possible even eight; and five periods per week of 50 minutes each in the higher grades.

In the proposed sequences, all reading materials are edited and graded according to the vocabulary to be learned at the level for which they will be used. The use of unedited material is started and gradually increased after the use of the all-Chinese dictionary is introduced in the tenth grade (or in the eleventh grade if students begin their course in the ninth grade).

The use of romanization in the reading materials will decrease from about 85 percent at the beginning to about 20 percent by the tenth grade. During the twelfth grade, use of romanization should cease.

The number of independent compounds that a given number of Chinese morphemes can form varies, but the general rule is about 200 to 250 compounds per 100 morphemes. The most basic--and hence, most versatile--morphemes introduced at the beginning of the course of study will undoubtedly produce this ratio, but the relatively less basic morphemes yield fewer compounds. Moreover, the pattern will become extremely irregular beyond the first 1, 500 basic morphemes. Once the students master the first 1, 500 basic morphemes, however, they can be expected to expand their vocabulary rapidly.

Although the amount of vocabulary and basic grammar taught in the longer sequences of the chart differs little from the amount taught in the shorter sequences, the period of exposure given in the longer sequences enables the students to acquire more proficiency in the basic foreign language skills, as well as to improve their cultural understanding. Although the basic chart does not allow for differences in students' reasons for learning the Chinese language, such differences should be recognized and provided for in class. Supplementary units, built upon the general linguistic training of the earlier grades, should be designed to parallel the regular units of study for the more advanced grades in order to enable each student to acquire a command of the language especially useful for his purpose.

Chart of Suggested Curricular Sequences[3]

Sequence and grade	Area	Percent of total time	Number[4] of Morphemes	Number[4] of Vocabulary items	Number[4] of Characters	Activities
VI-XII						
Six	Aural-oral	85	150	350		Pronunciation Dialogues
	Reading	5			100	Recitation Dialogues Songs
	Grammar	5				Word functions 14 basic sentence patterns
	Writing	5				Filling blanks Sentence-making
Seven	Aural-oral	80	150 (300)	350 (700)		Vocabulary items Pronunciation Dialogues
	Reading	10			100 (200)	Children's stories Dialogues Tales
	Grammar	5				Word combinations Sentence pattern variations
	Writing	5				Sentence-making Series of sentences
Eight	Aural-oral	80	200 (500)	300 (1,000)		Intonation Conversation
	Reading	10			150 (350)	Edited news stories Letters Travel stories

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[3] Adapted from "Chinese Language Instruction in California Public Schools," California Schools, XXXIII (September, 1962), pp. 349-352.

[4] Items in parentheses are cumulative totals.

Chart of Suggested Curricular Sequences--Continued

Sequence and grade	Area	Percent or total time	Number of Mor-phemes	Number of Vocabu-lary items	Number of Char-acters	Activities
	Grammar	5				Summary of common sentence patterns Sentence-end expressions
	Writing	5				Short letters Tales Diaries
Nine	Aural-oral	75	250 (750)	300 (1,350)		Conversation News reports
	Reading	10			200 (550)	Edited modern prose Announcements Short articles on Chinese history
	Grammar	5				Idioms
	Writing	10				Travel stories Diaries
Ten	Aural-oral	60	250 (1,000)	300 (1,650)		Discussion Speeches Story-telling
	Reading	25			200 (750)	Edited modern prose Edited stories News reports Dictionary use
	Grammar	5				Discussion of common varieties of writing styles
	Writing	10				Simple composition News stories Speeches
Eleven	Aural-oral	55	250 (1,250)	300 (1,950)		Discussions Speeches Story-telling
	Reading	25			200 (950)	Plays Short stories Documents

Chart of Suggested Curricular Sequences--Continued.

Sequence and grade	Area	Percent of total time	Number of			Activities
			Morphemes	Vocabulary items	Characters	
	Grammar					Techniques of composition Literary particles (classical)
	Writing	15				Simple composition Literary particles exercise
Twelve	Aural-oral	50	300 (1,550)	300 (2,250)		Speeches Debates Conferences Plays
	Reading	30			250 (1,200)	Poems Essays on Chinese culture Novels Edited classical prose
	Grammar	5				Classical Chinese syntax
	Writing	15				Composition Basic rhetoric
VII-XII						
Seven	Aural-oral	85	150	350		Pronunciation Dialogues
	Reading	5			100	Recitation Dialogues Songs
	Grammar	5				Word functions 14 basic sentence patterns
	Writing	5				Filling blanks Sentence-making
Eight	Aural-oral	80	170 (320)	350 (700)		Intonation Dialogues
	Reading	10			150 (250)	Children's stories Dialogues Simple prose

Chart of Suggested Curricular Sequences--Continued

Sequence and grade	Area	Percent of total time	Number of			Activities
			Morphemes	Vocabulary items	Characters	
	Grammar	5				Word combinations Sentence pattern variations Summary of sentence patterns
	Writing	5				Sentence-making Series of sentences Simple accounts of daily life
Nine	Aural-oral	75	250 (570)	350 (1,050)		Conversation
	Reading	10			200 (450)	Edited news stories Travel stories Letters Documents
	Grammar	5				Sentence-end expressions Idioms
	Writing	10				Short letters Tales Diaries
Ten	Aural-oral	65	300 (870)	350 (1,400)		Vocabulary items News reporting Discussion
	Reading	20			230 (680)	Edited modern prose Historical stories Documents Dictionary use
	Grammar	5				Common variations of style
	Writing	10				Simple composition News summaries Travel stories

Chart of Suggested Curricular Sequences--Continued

Sequence and grade	Area	Percent of total time	Number of			Activities
			Mor phemes	Vocabu-lary items	Char-acters	
Eleven	Aural-oral	55	300 (1,170)	350 (1,750)		Speeches Debates
	Reading	25			230 (910)	Modern prose Short stories Plays Documents
	Grammar	5				Techniques of composition Basic literary particles
	Writing	15				Speech-writing Composition Literary particles exercise
Twelve	Aural-oral	50	300 (1,470)	300 (2,050)		Meetings Plays
	Reading	30			250 (1,160)	Poems Essays on Chinese culture Documents Selected classical prose
	Grammar	5				Basic classical syntax
	Writing	15				Pronunciation Basic dialogues
VIII-XII						
Eight	Aural-oral	85	170	350		Pronunciation Basic dialogues
	Reading	5			150	Recitation Dialogues Songs
	Grammar	5				Word functions Word combinations 14 basic sentence patterns
	Writing	5				Filling blanks Sentence-making Sentence series

Chart of Suggested Curricular Sequences--Continued

Sequence and grade	Area	Percent of total time	Number of			Activities
			Morphemes	Vocabulary items	Characters	
Nine	Aural-oral	80	250 (420)	450 (800)		Intonation Dialogues Conversation
	Reading	10			200 (350)	Edited prose News stories Letters Travel stories
	Grammar	5				Sentence pattern variations Sentence pattern summary Sentence-end expressions
	Writing	5				Short letters Short accounts of daily life
Ten	Aural-oral	70	300 (720)	500 (1,300)		News-reporting Story-telling
	Reading	15			250 (600)	Edited prose Documents Historical tales Dictionary use
	Grammar	5				Idioms Common styles of writing
	Writing	10				Short compositions
Eleven	Aural-oral	60	325 (1,045)	400 (1,700)		Speeches Discussions Debates
	Reading	20			300 (900)	Modern prose News stories Short stories Documents
	Grammar	5				Techniques of composition Basic classical Chinese composition

Chart of Suggested Curricular Sequences--Continued

Sequence and grade	Area	Percent of total time	Number of			Activites
			Morphemes	Vocabulary items	Characters	
	Writing	15				Speech-writing Classical Chinese particles exercise Compositions
Twelve	Aural-oral	50	325 (1,370)	350 (2,050		Meetings Plays
	Reading	30			250 (1,150)	Poems Essays on Chinese culture Documents Plays Classical prose
	Grammar	5				Basic classical Chinese syntax
	Writing	15				Composition Basic rhetoric
IX-XII						
Nine	Aural-oral	85	300	750		Basic dialogues Compositions
	Reading	5			160	Recitations Dialogues Songs Other edited materials
	Grammar	5				Word functions 14 basic sentence patterns
	Writing	5				Sentence-making Sentence series
Ten	Aural-oral	75	300 (600)	600 (1,350)		Dialogues Conversation Intonation
	Reading	15			250 (410)	Edited stories News reports
	Grammar	5				Sentence pattern variations Idioms

Chart of Suggested Curricular Sequences--Continued

Sequence and grade	Area	Percent of total time	Number of Morphemes	Number of Vocabulary items	Number of Characters	Activities
	Writing	5				Accounts of daily life
Eleven	Aural-oral	65	300 (900)	400 (1,750)		Story-telling Topical discussion
	Reading	20			300 (710)	News stories Documents Essays on Chinese culture
	Grammar	5				Common styles of writing
	Writing	10				Essays on given themes
Twelve	Aural-oral	50	300 (1,200)	300 (2,050)		Speech Plays Debates
	Reading	30			300 (1,010)	Poems Documents News stories
	Grammar	5				Common stylistics and rhetoric in modern Chinese
	Writing	15				Essays

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Chapter 4

Methodology

Proper recognition of the nature of language dictates the adoption of the audiolingual approach as a necessity to effective language learning. The methods encompassed by the audiolingual approach have been demonstrated to be productive in foreign language instruction. Instruction in Chinese is no exception.

The audiolingual approach is the natural sequence in learning a language: first, the development of skill in listening-comprehension and speaking; and later, the development of skill in reading and writing. Teaching by the audiolingual approach does not mean, therefore, that students are to learn the speaking skill only; it means they are to acquire first a firm control, through listening and speaking, of the most basic sound and syntax patterns without which their progress in learning the language will be slow. Most students, learning to (1) comprehend auditorily; (2) speak; (3) read; and (4) write a modern foreign language--in this order--learn all four skills better and faster than if they are taught all of the skills simultaneously. If the students have to learn too many things at once at the beginning, they learn nothing well for a discouragingly long time.

The learning process must involve constant practice and review. The material presented in the first units must reappear constantly in subsequent units until the students gain a firm control of grammatical structure and vocabulary.

After they have mastered the basic sentence patterns audio-lingually, they can begin to learn to read. Proficient reading--in contradistinction to painful decoding--is a skill different from, yet specifically related to, the skills of auditory comprehension and speech.

The Use of English as the Language of Instruction

During the first hour, the teacher has to use English to explain how he is going to conduct the class and what he expects his students to do. After he has explained the procedure, however, the teacher should be constantly aware of the importance of maintaining the rhythm, and even the mood, of the foreign language throughout the class period. Generally, students require a few minutes at the beginning of the period to adjust to hearing and speaking foreign language. Only after they have made this adjustment can they derive full benefit from a session. Any English used by the teacher tends to pull the students back into the English-speaking world, thus disrupting their concentration on Chinese.

When the need arises, the teacher may use English to clarify a structure or a drill. When he presents a new unit, the teacher may need to make a few remarks in English, but he should not indulge in lecturing in English. The teacher should try to limit his use of English to the few minutes immediately after the class has started and just before the class ends.

Some teachers check the students' comprehension by asking them to translate aloud. Although translation from Chinese to English may seem to be an expedient method of clarifying and evaluating, word-by-word translation must be avoided at all costs. Rigid equation of meaning only trains students to use words erroneously, because usually they are prone to assign only one meaning to a foreign word and to apply English word function to it, which results in limited and stilted expression. Furthermore, most of the basic and idiomatic expressions in Chinese cannot be translated literally and out of context.

Pronunciation and Intonation

Effective language instruction must proceed from the development of the students' ability to discriminate speech sounds and comprehend them. The first task for the teacher is to present models of accurate sounds, with appropriate cadence and patterns of intonation in the foreign language, and at the speed normal to the average native speaker. Slower speech tends to distort the sounds, and the students cannot acquire desirable speech habits. The students begin to learn Chinese by listening to correct models and imitating them repeatedly.

Proper progression requires that short utterances be introduced first. If a new utterance requires more than one breath, it should be broken up and presented for active mimicry practice in shorter, but meaningful, units. Then the meaningful parts are drilled together as a total utterance before the next complete utterance is drilled. Even after the students have acquired sufficient mastery of the relatively long utterances, the teacher still should include very short utterances in every practice session. They provide relief from tension built up in learning long utterances and provide the variation that exists in normal speech.

The use of the English alphabet roughly to represent Chinese sounds is but an expedient. The teacher must avoid equating any Chinese sound exactly with letters that have fixed sound values in English. The question has been raised as to why no attempt has been made to adopt a phonetic system such as the International Phonetic Alphabet, which is quite different from the English alphabet. In reply, most experienced teachers of Chinese agree that the effort necessary for students, especially at the precollege level, to learn phonetic symbols to be replaced eventually by the Chinese script is an unjustifiable burden. (See the Mandarin sound system, in Appendix B.)

As legitimate need has continued to exist for using the English alphabet to represent Chinese sounds, particularly during the students' prereading period in learning the language, several systems have emerged in the field of Chinese studies. Three of the most popularly used systems of romanization of the Chinese script are: (1) the Wade-Giles system, devised by the British sinologues Thomas Wade and Herbert Giles in the nineteenth century (still the most extensively used system in English works on China); (2) the Yale system, originally developed by a group of linguists working on material for a U.S. Army language curriculum shortly before World War II and subsequently improved by scholars affiliated with Yale University; (3) Pin-yin, a phonic system with a modified Latin alphabet, now in vogue on the Chinese mainland. A fourth system has deserved scholarly recognition: the Gwoyeu Romatzyh system, developed by Y. R. Chao of the University of California, Berkeley.

Although each system has relative merits and demerits, most teachers of Chinese in America seem to prefer the Yale system. It differs from the Wade-Giles system quite noticeably but parallels very closely the Pin-yin system, as shown in the chart included as Appendix E. Once students have mastered Chinese sounds, they can readily switch from one of the three systems to another. Switching is especially easy between the Yale and the Pin-yin systems.

The basic sounds in the Chinese language are relatively simple and few. These can be taught and mastered within the first few units of Level I. The same can be said for the basic tonal pattern, which is considered a unique feature of the Chinese language and which is shown in Appendix B. However, intonation patterns of sentences are a different matter. Without making definitive and thorough analyses of sentence intonation patterns, students can learn sentence intonation only by imitating a model speaker in all cases. From the very beginning, the teacher should pay attention to the "retroflex" sounds, which are difficult to imitate because they are alien to English. Wherever students encounter difficulties in pronunciation exercises, the teacher may use contrastive pairs of sounds in the drills, a procedure which usually proves to be effective, especially when accompanied by the visual aid of sound charts or by brief but concrete explanations of how a given sound is produced. For example:

- Initial sounds (see Appendix E):
    pàu, bàu
    kàu, gàu

- Final sounds:
    tǎn, tǎng
    fá, fāng

- Tones:

  gāi mǎi, gāi mài
  tā dàle, tā dǎle

Sentence Patterns and Pattern Drills

Basic Chinese grammar is quite simple, and explaining it should not require much of the teacher's time or effort. Essentially, Chinese word forms are not changed by tense, gender, number, or case. Because its word order is of supreme importance, the Chinese language lends itself more particularly to pattern drill than to the study of grammar. The students learn the syntax of the language as they drill on basic sentence patterns and as they learn to extend the basic patterns through the use of pattern drills. Pattern sentences or structures are the basic paradigms which, when mastered, can be adapted as students learn to change the vocabulary items within these patterns to make a variety of sentences.

Although theories vary on how to analyze the Chinese language to derive its sentence patterns, there is general agreement on the most basic patterns, of which the number is rather limited. Appendix C offers one useful breakdown of these basic patterns. The teacher may prefer to use a different manner of describing these patterns and a different order of presentation. However, he should be aware of the need to teach his class to master these patterns during levels I and II. As he selects the patterns to be introduced, the teacher should bear in mind that he should use the simplest patterns first, while keeping the speech and the situation natural. Variations and expansions of these patterns will come in more advanced instruction.

After the teacher has incorporated properly selected basic sentence patterns into the basic dialogues of the beginning units, particularly those of Level I, he must prepare drill exercises to enable the students to practice using these patterns to the point of mastery. Since Chinese verbs and nouns are not inflected, one major drill area necessary in the study of many other languages is unnecessary in Chinese. The types of drills and exercises described below have been found most effective for teaching Chinese. If the textbook chosen for the class does not include materials for exercise, the teacher can devise drills according to the principles for each pattern drill below.

Fluency Drill, or Expansion Drill

The fluency drill lays the foundation without which future progress is impossible. As its name indicates, the fluency, or expansion, drill is designed to enable the students to master the sound and intonation patterns of the language and to acquire a fluency approximating that of the native speaker. The drill uses sentence build-up exercises which provide sufficient repetition of each structural element in a sentence pattern.

The process of learning in this drill is clearly mechanical in that the students repeat each utterance without any chance to be original since they are not yet capable of exercising originality at this stage. However, students enjoy the "surprise element" added at each step. They feel satisfaction and reward when they can say sentences with ease. Their feeling of achievement relieves the possible monotony of the fluency drill.

In this drill, the teacher gives the model, the students repeat the model at least twice, and then the teacher repeats the model in order to reinforce the pronunciation and the structural pattern. For this drill, as for all others, the teacher should give clear instructions to the class and should supply an example of the drill before conducting the drill itself.

Hǎukàn.
Yīshang hǎukàn.
Yīshang hén hǎukàn.
Wǒde yīshang hén hǎukàn.
Nǐde yīshang yé hén hǎukàn.

Repetition Drill

The repetition drill begins to show the students the paradigms by concentrating on one structural element at a time. The students repeat several times after the teacher each total pattern sentence which has been arranged with the basic variations already learned. For purposes of reinforcement, the teacher should repeat each model after the students' imitations. Only after the students imitate him correctly should the teacher proceed to the next model.

-De

Wǒde yīshang hén hǎukàn.
Nǐde yīshang hén hǎukàn.
Tāmende yīshang hén hǎukàn.
Wáng Lǎushr̄de yīshang hén hǎukàn.
Lǐ Syānshengde yīshang hén hǎukàn.
Jāng Měi-fāngde yīshang hén hǎukàn.

Substitution Drill

Mechanical repetition is reduced in the substitution drill, a valuable drill for building verb and noun vocabularies within known patterns. Students are given the opportunity to substitute new words within the sentence patterns. They already know, with beginning classes, only one word should be substituted for another in any one sentence.

In this drill, the teacher gives the model, the students repeat the model at least twice, and then the teacher repeats the model once more in order to reinforce the pronunciation and the structural pattern.

Jāng Měi-fāngde yīshang hén hǎukàn.
Substitute word: máuyī
Jāng Měi-fāngde máuyī hén hǎukàn.
Substitute word: dàyī
Jāng Měi-fāngde dàyī hén hǎukàn.

Replacement Drill

The principle of the replacement drill is the same as that of the substitution drill except that students replace more than one item within a sentence. In this drill, the teacher gives the model and the students repeat it. Then the teacher gives the cue structure to be used for replacement; the students use the new item in the total model, which the teacher repeats before giving the next cued item.

Jāng Měi-fāngde yīshang hén hǎukàn.
Replacement: máuyī

Jāng Měi-fāngde máuyī hén hǎukàn.
Replacement: Wáng Lǎushrde
Wáng Lǎushrde máuyī hén hǎukàn.
Replacement: dàyī
Wáng Lǎushrde dàyī hén hǎukàn.
Replacement: Lǐ Syānshengde
Lǐ Syānshengde dàyī hén hǎukàn.

Response Drill

After mastering the earlier drills, all relatively mechanical in application, students are eager to try more flexible exercises. A response drill of questions and answers offers them such an opportunity. By asking appropriate questions, the teacher can elicit nearly automatic responses. In answering, the students are expected to use all they have learned so far. The teacher's guidance will prevent the students from guessing blindly or from making erroneous analogies.

In the response drill, as in all others, a natural speech tempo is important. The teacher may cue a student, indicating by head movements a "yes" or "no" response. The student should not be allowed to spend time piecing the words together as he forms an answer. If he hesitates too long, the teacher should turn to another student with a similarly patterned question and then come back to the first student with the original question. The first student is then cued by analogy with the second student's response.

In the beginning stages of the response drill, the teacher should repeat the student's correct answer before posing the next question.

Question (teacher nodding his head):
Jāng Mĕi-fāngde yīshang hăukàn ma?
Answer: Jāng Mĕi-fāngde yīshang hén hăukàn.
Question (teacher shaking his head):
Jāng Mĕi-fāngde yīshang hăukàn ma?
Answer: Jāng Mĕi-fāngde yīshang bùhăukàn.

Directed Conversation and Chain Drill

Theoretically, after successful experience in all the previous drills, the students ought to be able to use conversation within the limits of the units they have learned. The problem arises precisely on the matter of limitation. Given free rein, the students either do not know what to say or are tempted to try something beyond their ability. To help students avoid frustration or error and to help them reinforce what they have learned, the teacher should keep the students within the limits of what they have learned. Since, in earlier drills, the students' responses have been principally declarative, the directed conversation drill complements the preceding drills by requiring the students to ask questions. The focus of activity, then, is extended from teacher-student to teacher-student-student, a process which is all the more desirable because it develops an increasing self-reliance on the part of the students. Properly supervised, this drill stimulates students to converse among themselves after class.

Earlier in the learning experience, the directed conversation drill may take the form of a simple chain drill in which the teacher asks a question of a student who replies to the question and then poses the same question to another student. The process of student response and question may continue successfully through a series of six or eight students. At that point, the question should be returned to the teacher, who may reinforce it or change it to another pattern.

Teacher's question: Nǐ wèn ta, Jāng Měi-fāngde yīshang hǎukàn bùhǎukàn?

First student's question to a second student: Jāng Měi-fāngde yīshang hǎukàn bùhǎukàn?

Second student's answer: Jāng Měi-fāngde yīshang hěn hǎukàn.

Second student's question to a third student: Nǐ wèn ta, Jāng Měi-fāngde yīshang hǎukàn bùhǎukàn?

Third student's question to a fourth student: Jāng Měi-fāngde yīshang hǎukàn bùhǎukàn?

Fourth student's answer: Jāng Měi-fāngde yīshang bùhǎukàn.

Dialogue Expansion

In the exercise in dialogue expansion, students learn to apply familiar utterances and their variations, already well learned, to new situations. First the teacher, along or with the aid of a student, demonstrates slightly rearranged questions and answers and then instructs two students to repeat his demonstration. Then the students create their own dialogues in new combinations of patterns, questioning and answering as they have done with the familiar basic dialogues.

Narration

This exercise has two purposes: (1) to train the students to comprehend material other than the basic dialogue form;

and (2) to provide experience in adapting the dialogue to narrative form. Exercise in narration avoids a possible drawback of the dialogue approach in which the students may learn only stereotyped sentences without knowing how to vary them if the situation changes. For the narration exercise, the teacher recasts dialogue exercises into narrative form, reciting the material one or two times and acting out the meaning whenever possible. Then he questions the students for their comprehension. (Of course, any English the teacher uses to explain the meaning of the narration further must be a free, rather than literal, translation of the passage.)

Students should be encouraged to memorize some of the narrative material. If memorization proves difficult in the early stages, the teacher may use picture cues or may give the gist of the passage in English (again, never a literal translation) in order to aid the students in their efforts to retell the narrative.

Rhymes

Rhymes with the same structure and vocabulary already introduced aid the memorization of pronunciation and intonation patterns, as well as structures and vocabulary. Students memorize rhymes easily if they have heard the model several times and if they are permitted to recite with multiple repetition after the model.

Dz̀rán shèhwèi dōu rúngyi
Jūngwén Yīngwén yě bùnán.
Dzwótyan kàn dyànshr̀,
Jīntyan tīng chàngpyār.

Měi-fāngde yǐshang hén hǎukàn,
Ní syǐhwan,
Wó syǐhwan
Tāmen wǒmen dōu syǐhwan.

In conclusion, teachers should note that the last exercises suggested in this guide are mainly devices to help the students develop skills in using words and grammatical structures already learned. If the students can recombine these items successfully and freely, they are ready for undirected or "free" conversation.

All the suggested drills and exercises must be structured according to a gradual progression from the simple to the complex. For the students, the progression is automatic, but effective learning can come about only if the teacher retains his dynamic role in guiding and cuing the students at appropriate moments. His role is indispensable. The teacher should never be bound by any ready-made drill. He should react sensitively to the class by varying his use of the exercises and drills in order to ensure optimal learning. Furthermore, he should conduct drills for only short periods of time (10 to 15 minutes) in order to prevent the students from becoming tense and forming mental blocks.

Reading and Writing

The Chinese writing system began possibly 3,000 years ago with pictographic symbols portraying concrete objects. Words like wind and thunder, more difficult to draw, were represented by symbols suggesting some quality of the thing they stood for. As the need to record more complex and abstract ideas arose, some of the basic symbols were combined. Other basic symbols which had been used to express certain ideas were borrowed to express different ideas, either with or without any change in their sounds, thus creating homonyms and transfers and extensions of meanings in the language. Consequently, the meanings of many characters in current use cannot be ascertained merely by analyzing their components.

A large number of the characters in use today consist of two parts, one indicating the sound and the other supplying the idea. The latter--the signific component of a character--is commonly known as a radical, which may or may not be a complete character in itself. Lacking a convenient alphabetical system, the early lexicographer had to rely upon radicals in indexing Chinese characters, and entries of standard dictionaries are still classified according to radicals. There are more than 200 radicals, but the most common are not numerous.

The study of Chinese characters is a fascinating subject, worthy of lifelong pursuit. Their aesthetic appeal is revealed in Chinese calligraphy, or handwriting, which is considered an art. For beginning students, learning to write Chinese is a task quite separate from learning to speak it. A student could, if he so chose, memorize the individual characters, their sounds, and dictionary meanings without the benefit of syntax. He would then be learning the characters only as objects of his own curiosity, not as integral parts of the language.

Experience has shown that after students have become relatively secure in their audiolingual command of the basic syntax patterns, their effort to memorize the written characters does not unduly slow down their overall progress, because knowledge of the characters tends to enhance their interest in Chinese and aid them in expanding their vocabulary. Students usually find it very tempting to learn the characters; often they claim that their visual memory is better than their auditory memory. At the appropriate time, the teacher should take advantage of the motivation inherent in the students' curiosity about the characters and teach them to read and write while their interest is high.

In most cases, reading and writing should be learned simultaneously, because one tends to reinforce the other. However, learning to read long passages with proficiency and learning to write them with speed and accuracy require different exercises. In general, after the students have learned to recognize over 1,000 characters, they can be expected to improve their reading facility rather rapidly, but writing takes longer. For American students, drawing the Chinese characters requires a lot of practice, much more than they would need to write a language--like Spanish or French--which uses the same alphabet as English.

The procedures outlined in the following paragraphs are suggested for the early stages of learning to read and write.

The Time to Begin

The opportune moment to introduce Chinese characters usually arrives after the students have acquired a firm command of the basic sound patterns and after they have learned to handle a few basic dialogues with skill.

The Approach

The first reading and writing selections should be based on the pictographic type of characters and those characters most frequently appearing in the dialogues already learned. In making further selections, the teacher should consider the semantic, etymological, and phonetic associations between the characters already learned and the ones to be introduced.

Until the students have learned enough characters to write all they wish to say, they should be encouraged, for purposes of practice, to write Chinese characters whenever possible and to use romanization for those words for which the characters are yet unknown.

Methods

Mnemonic devices, including etymological and other analyses of the characters, should be used freely to the extent that they help students to remember Chinese characters correctly. (Some teachers confuse a truly etymological study with mnemonic devices, but this confusion is neither necessary nor desirable.) Students should be encouraged to make their own flash cards, with either a meaningful picture or an English equivalent on the backs of the cards. The teacher should also use flash cards and other visual aids--such as a simple hand tachistoscope or an overhead projector--to help students learn to read and remember characters. Introducing students to the use of the Chinese writing brush will enhance interest.

The basic training in writing Chinese characters consists of training the hand and the eye, through repetition, to discern and reproduce the strokes rhythmically, symetrically, and accurately. Some mention and illustration of the relationship between Chinese calligraphy and painting can be very helpful.

During the first several weeks of study, the teacher should introduce only two or three characters per day, using no more than five to ten minutes in each 50-minute period. Such brief exercises in character writing create variety in classroom instruction and reduce the possible monotony of pattern drill.

For the teacher's use, a few reference works on the analysis of Chinese characters are listed in Appendix A, Selected References.

Cultural Notes

By introducing appropriate activities in the classroom, the teacher can convey a great deal of cultural information to his students. In most cases, the basic dialogue already brings in some aspect of Chinese culture. Because the teacher must limit himself to a few succinct statements as he introduces the dialogue in English, he may not have sufficient opportunity to dwell on the cultural points incorporated in the dialogue material. However, the dialogue situation selected for its cultural as well as linguistic values will, in itself, reflect the behavioral patterns of the people whose language the students are learning.

If need be, the teacher may take a few minutes at the end of each class period to talk about cultural matters, making this activity separate from the principal task of learning the

Chinese language. He can encourage his students to postpone the culture-oriented questions which occur to them during drill sessions until the last part of class time. The teacher should wish to, and should know how to, explain cultural matters, but he would be ill advised if he gave long lectures on familiar trivia like chopsticks or, at the other extreme, tried to present the entire range of Chinese history and enumerate the names of all the rulers since 1200 BC!

Supplementary Activities

Supplementary activities can contribute to the effectiveness of instruction and arouse student interest. The study trip is one. If the class is located in a community where some families maintain the Chinese tradition, the teacher should arrange for student visits to such families willing to receive student visitors. Even during the beginning months of the course, home visits and field trips to sites of Chinese cultural interest could stimulate interests which always reinforce language study.

During the more advanced stages of learning, the students should, wherever possible, make even more extensive use of such opportunities to visit Chinese families. Students can thereby be better motivated to practice speaking either with the Chinese family members or even among themselves. Certainly, contacts with authentic Chinese culture, however infrequent, add reality to the learning of a living language.

The classroom should not be neglected, however, as a place to display cultural objects and stimulate student interest in learning the Chinese language. Classroom exhibits can be used as part of the regular classroom decoration or to dramatize certain occasions. The teacher can assemble a number of useful realia or illustrative materials, like photographs, reproductions of paintings, posters, implements, models, Chinese books, and the like. The students should be encouraged to contribute to the teacher's exhibits and to arrange complete exhibits themselves, providing necessary explanatory text and labels.

A third useful activity is the contest. Speech and writing contests provide recognition to students who have performed well. The successful performance of even one student proves to other students that the language can be learned well. Contests can be arranged on the local, regional, or even national scale.

Homework Assignments

Many teachers note that both students and their parents expect some homework assignments for every course. Since the principal work during the first several weeks in a foreign language course is done audiolingually, a problem exists in what to assign the student to do at home. Several possible solutions have been offered, and the teacher should exercise his discretion and imagination to try some or all of them according to his students' needs.

Ideally, beginning students should be given nothing printed during the first several weeks. If programmed materials on tapes or discs are available, these may be assigned as homework. If these are unavailable or if technical difficulties make it impractical to let students take the recordings home, then the teacher may try to arrange for the students to do their language homework at listening posts or in the language laboratory at school. If students cannot stay at school after the regular classes, language clubs can be organized to practice Chinese during the noon hour. Supervision and correction are necessary even during these informal sessions, for students are liable to perpetuate their errors if they practice among themselves without guidance.

The teacher certainly should require the students to memorize the dialogues and other materials pertinent to the current lessons. In class, he can help students to form the habit of reciting dialogues and drills by calling on them frequently to recite the materials to be memorized. It is true that, without any recording, the students will need some guides to memorization, in the form of either picture cues or romanization, to help them review and practice at home. However, many teachers have observed that the moment the students work on any printed material before they have acquired a good grasp of the sound patterns, they lose what they have just learned from the drill in class, returning to class the next day with incorrect pronunciation and intonation. This practical plight has led many teachers to ask their administrators for a sufficient number of recordings for student use at home.

After several weeks, most classes in the higher grades may start to learn Chinese characters, which can be assigned as part of the student's homework. However, audiolingual exercises should continue to be the bulk of their work in order not to hinder their efforts to master the patterns of sound and syntax. In short, there is no complete substitute for practice either with a teacher or with a properly prepared recording.

Some well chosen material in English on Chinese culture and Chinese literature, including good translations of Chinese literary masterpieces, could be assigned as part of the students' homework before they are ready to read Chinese. Although these assignments do not aid in the acquisition of language skills, they certainly can help students to understand Chinese culture and appreciate Chinese literature (see Selected References, Appendix A, at the end of this guide).

Chapter 5

The Language Laboratory

語言
練習室

Recent developments in electronic facilities for language instruction have increased the possibility of accomplishing many tasks in language teaching by means of audio-lingual-visual devices. Language laboratories have been designed to provide drills, or cultural enrichment, or a full course of self-instruction. Wherever a laboratory is available, the teacher should use it to serve several functions.

Functions of the Language Laboratory

One of the main functions of the laboratory is to reinforce what has been taught during class time. Repetition and over-learning being the keys to successful instruction, the laboratory offers an excellent opportunity to practice with recorded model voices. The value of the laboratory lies in the consistency of voice patterns, obtainable through its mechanical devices at all times and for as long as a student needs to practice.

Another function of the language laboratory is that of allowing the teacher to listen for student errors during oral drills and to correct errors immediately. The laboratory also enables the students to detect their own errors when a model voice and their imitations are alternated so as to present the contrast clearly. It has been said that one of the most valuable things a language laboratory does is that it helps the student to develop his sense of sound discrimination, the first skill to be learned in language learning.

At advanced levels of language study, the laboratory can expose students to a wealth of recorded literature, thus increasing their appreciation of the literary forms which enrich the language they are learning. They may also use the laboratory to record readings, oral compositions, and discussions for presentation in class.

The language laboratory provides technical assistance to a teacher who has students at different levels of language study or students with different rates of progress in the same classroom. Even if a class is homogeneous, the laboratory can provide remedial aid, group teaching, and special interest materials. For large classes, the language laboratory is a necessity in administering tests to evaluate audiolingual proficiency.

Programmed Instruction

Application of the principles of repetition and overlearning in the actual process of language instruction has led many teachers to consider the increasingly important role that programmed instruction using mechanical devices can play in the classroom or in the laboratory. No leading proponents of programmed instruction ever recommend any mechanical device as a substitute for trained and dedicated teachers. However, it has become increasingly clear that repetition drills in basic language skills can be conducted better by mechanical devices than by teachers. Mechanical aids free the teacher to conduct, in the classroom, learning activities which are not suited to machine presentation. A number of excellent discussions on programmed instruction in Chinese have already appeared (see Selected References, Appendix A), and more studies and material are likely to become available

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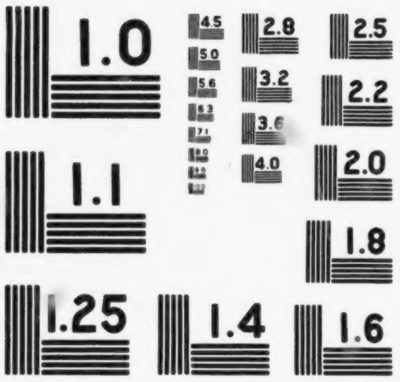
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MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963

in the near future. Teachers of Chinese should be aware of these materials as they become available.

Desirable material for programmed instruction includes the following features: audio-lingual-visual presentation, provision for repetition, provision for immediate confirmation of responses, provision for multiple choice and constructed responses. Such material also includes devices whereby students who have already learned a given block of material should be able to omit remedial or reinforcement steps in the program and to move on to the next block of material; students who have not yet learned the assigned steps should be given more review. In order to achieve these purposes, the program must include certain evaluative instruments designed to test students.

One of the problems with programmed instructional materials is mechanical complexity. Students are required to go through too many steps in the mechanical operation of the devices, a procedure which tends to defeat the original purpose of the program: to learn with an efficient and individualized use of time. Even if the steps are not too complex, they still may interfere with concentration on the material itself. If these difficulties could be eliminated, programmed instruction would be excellent because it would allow students to control their own speed of learning. If they need more time to listen to a model or to look at a graphic presentation, they could do so without interfering with the rest of the class.[1]

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[1] For more discussion on programmed instruction in Chinese, see John B. Carroll, Programmed Self-Instruction in Mandarin Chinese. Wellesley, Mass.: Language Testing Fund, 1963.

Despite their shortcomings, programmed materials should be used particularly when well-qualified teachers are not available. When well-qualified teachers are available but scarce, a combination of teacher-student instruction and the use of programmed instructional materials is an ideal arrangement. It is significant to note that the perfectly trained language teacher, although most desirable, may not be absolutely necessary in every language classroom. A teacher with less than a total range of conversational ability in a foreign language can still conduct effective oral practice at the beginning levels of instruction. He needs to have only a knowledge of the pronunciation and the sentence structures of the materials the students are to learn and the ability to judge the students' accuracy in imitating the materials presented in class. With these abilities, a teacher can make full use of adequately prepared audiolingual aids to make his language course very successful.[2] For the teacher who is not a specialist in foreign language, the importance of well-constructed programmed materials is paramount.

Administration of the Laboratory

A language laboratory is only as useful as it is free from operational and maintenance problems. The equipment should be relatively simple to operate and durable. Breakdown in the equipment has often discouraged teachers who consequently prefer not to have anything to do with the laboratory. Such a reaction can be avoided by provision of good equipment, regular maintenance, adequate supplies, and technical-clerical assistance in handling laboratory materials.

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[2] Patricia O'Connor and W. F. Twaddell, "Intensive Training for an Oral Approach in Language Teaching," 42 pp. Constitutes Part 2, No. 2, Vol. 44 of The Modern Language Journal, February, 1960.

The teacher must take steps to secure authentic model voices recorded with good fidelity. He must also ensure that the exercises done in the laboratory are supervised and performed effectively, for otherwise laboratory sessions may degenerate into a casual pastime or simply a camouflage for the students' daydreaming. Active response to tape-recorded model voices, cues, or direct questions is the key to successful utilization of laboratory materials. Excellent suggestions on how to set up and run a laboratory effectively can be found in a number of publications, some of which are identified in the selected references. The following summarize a few cogent points for the teacher:

1. In scheduling laboratory practice for high school students, the teacher will find that frequent, regular, short (25-minute) sessions are more effective than longer but infrequent periods. When short sessions are scheduled, however, the teacher must take into account the time needed for students to get settled in the booths and for the laboratory to be cleared for the next group of students. It is important to avoid loss of time in student transfer to and from the laboratory. In general, lower-level students need more frequent practice in the laboratory in shorter sessions to learn what they have been taught in the classroom.

2. Drill materials that have never been introduced and practiced first in the classroom should not be used in the laboratory. The main purpose of the laboratory

is to let the students practice, not to introduce new concepts or new materials. On the other hand, mature students trained in using the laboratory to teach themselves will profit from exposure to new materials in the laboratory.

3. Students should be encouraged to use the laboratory in a group under the classroom teacher's supervision or individually with the assistance of a knowledgeable laboratory supervisor. The library-type operation enables individual students to practice in the laboratory as much as possible during out-of-class hours. When no class is using it, the laboratory should be open to all language students.

4. Having students record an utterance and hear their own voices before they have gained mastery or near mastery of it often can be discouraging.

5. In order to integrate the laboratory exercise completely with classroom instruction, the teacher should adapt commercially prepared materials or supplement them with his own materials. Rarely do commercial materials for the Chinese language fit any given class without adaptation by the teacher. Consequently, the use of the laboratory never makes the overall workload of the teacher lighter. Rather, the teacher's responsibilities are extended by the responsibilities of a laboratory.

6. Most visual aids should be used in conjunction with audiolingual material.

Chapter 6

Testing and Evaluating

Testing and evaluation are an integral part of instruction. Tests can be planned to serve a variety of purposes: (1) diagnosing learning difficulties, thus assisting the teacher to plan remedial steps; (2) measuring the students' specific areas of achievement; and (3) ascertaining the exact strengths or weaknesses of the instructional program. Both frequent short quizzes and major examinations covering a large amount of material can be used for these purposes.

During the initial stages of the course, tests usually are focused on aural comprehension and oral performance. Even after students have reached a relatively advanced stage of learning, testing reading and writing skills must not be permitted to replace the aural-oral tests completely.

In most cases, tests to measure student achievement in the four language skills should be planned separately.

Teacher-made Tests

The most important keys to successful testing are the specific objective and the clarity of the test. Most failures in structuring a test result from the ambiguity of the items used, which permit more than one correct answer.

When the teacher plans to test the four basic language skills, he should consider the following types of tests.

Aural Comprehension Tests

These tests should measure student ability in sound discrimination and in comprehension for meaning. Students can be required to identify a group of sounds; or to test pronunciation, they can be asked to reproduce a sound after the model. The teacher could extend the test by asking his students to reproduce after the model a total series of sounds (a complete utterance).

To measure student comprehension, the teacher could make a statement or use one made by the model voice, and the students could use a true-false answer sheet to record their reactions. Picture identification, multiple-choice questions, or following directions given in Chinese can all be used to test comprehension. Some examples follow:

Sound Discrimination. The teacher may pronounce groups of sounds and ask students to mark the correct answer on answer sheets.

Teacher:
Jīntyān, Jīngtyān
Answer (choice of one):

1. Same sounds
2. First syllables different
3. Second syllables different
4. Both syllables different

Comprehension of Meaning. The teacher or taped voice may read a question or statement and ask students to mark the correct meaning in English on the answer sheets.

Teacher:

Wo dàu chéngli chỳu.

Answer (choice of one):

1. I return from the city.
2. I go to the city.
3. We come home.

Oral Performance Tests

Tests in oral performance should measure both the students' pronunciation and their ability to communicate in spoken Chinese. To test pronunciation, the scoring sheet can range from the near native pronunciation to total incomprehensibility or lack of response. Scoring should be based on the students' performance in general pronunciation, cadence, intonation, speed, clarity, and production of characteristically Chinese sounds, such as the retroflexes. To judge oral communication, the scoring should reveal the speed and accuracy of the response. Most of the forms used in the drills and exercises could be adapted for these tests. The following tests are only two examples of several tests a teacher could devise to measure oral performance.

Question and Answer. The teacher or taped voice can ask a question or make a statement to which students are to respond. The student responses should be recorded for the purpose of later evaluation. Questions eliciting only one correct response are best suited for tests.

Description. A picture or some other cue can be used. The student is asked to describe the picture in complete sentences and within a given amount of time.

Reading Tests

Students are tested on their ability to read orally or silently. If either oral or written answers in Chinese are required, then speech or writing ability is also tested. The passage should be written in Chinese characters.

Writing Tests

These tests measure the students' ability to express themselves appropriately with correctly formed Chinese characters. Dictation is usually the simplest and most convenient way to give a writing test. Sentence-making, with one word or a set of word cues given, is another. Students can also be asked to combine a number of sentences into a paragraph or to write a paragraph based upon one given sentence.

The teacher can give an outline which the students use to develop a story. Or the teacher can tell a story and ask the students to write it in their own words. A more advanced writing test can also include story-writing, as well as free composition on a given theme.

Standardized Tests

A battery of standardized tests is being developed for a number of purposes. Originated by several linguists in cooperation with the Modern Language Association, some of these tests have been used in three pilot evaluations. For the current status of the development of these tests and of their availability for actual administration, inquiry may be directed to the Modern Language Materials Center, Modern Language

Association, 4 Washington Place, New York, New York 10003. The following is a brief description of these tests.

Pictorial Auditory Comprehension Test

The test consists of a series of pictures of which only one is accurately described by a statement pronounced by a model voice on the test tape. The same test pictures could be used for other languages if different tapes were prepared.

Developed in 1959 by Professor John B. Carroll of Harvard University, in cooperation with a number of specialists in linguistics and in the field of Chinese language instruction, this test was subsequently put through several trials. Quite a few institutions with Chinese programs participated in these trials, and their general conclusion was that the test was very well conceived and structured. The only drawback seemed to be the relatively low ceiling of the test.

Chinese Written Vernacular Test

Designed to test the ability to read modern Chinese vernacular, this test consists of several parts: isolated vocabulary in sentential context, multiple choice of phrases to complete a given sentence, translation of a sentence to be identified as correct or incorrect, and a choice of statements in English as the proper restatement of or comment on a paragraph in Chinese taken from modern publications.

The various institutions using this test on a trial basis reacted quite differently. In particular, they questioned the appropriateness of the choice of test items.

Newspaper Chinese Test

This test is designed to measure student ability to read the language of the Chinese newspaper, which differs considerably from colloquial speech. The format of the test is similar to that of the Chinese Written Vernacular Test.

Comments received from those who have either studied the test or used it varied extensively. To date, consensus has not been reached with regard to its validity and degree of sensitivity as an instrument of measurement.

Intermediate Written Chinese Test

Developed to measure student ability to use written Chinese at the intermediate level, the Intermediate Written Chinese Test uses material which is a compromise between newspaper Chinese and colloquial speech.

In 1963, the Executive Committee of the Chinese Teachers Association, assisted by the Modern Language Association, conceived the idea for the test and assigned the work of planning a preliminary version to a three-man committee. The preliminary version is available but, at this writing, is yet to be tried. Consequently, no reaction to the test is available from the Chinese language profession.

Appendix A

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5235 North Ravenswood Avenue
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A. J. Nystrom & Co.
3333 Elston Avenue
Chicago 60618, Illinois

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Post Office Box 7600
Chicago 60680, Illinois

16-mm. Films

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Appendix B

The Mandarin Sound System

In a Chinese syllable, there are three basic elements: (1) an "initial," or beginning sound; (2) a "final," or ending sound; and (3) a tone, or pitch, and its movement.[1]

Initials

Usually, an initial consists of either a single consonant or a cluster of consonants (some writers prefer to describe these as combinations of consonants and semivowels). Sometimes a Chinese syllable does not begin with a consonant sound. The following summarizes all of the Mandarin initials described in the IPA system:[2]

	Unaspirated stop	Aspirated stop	Nasals	Fricative	Voiced continuants	Semivowels
Labials	b̥	p^{h}	m	f		(u)
Dentals	d̥	t^{h}	n		l	
Dental sibilants	ts	ts^{h}		s		
Retroflexes	tʂ	tʂ^{h}		ʂ	ɹ	
Palatals	tɕ	tɕ^{h}		ɕ		(j)
Gutturals	g̊	k	(ŋ)	X	O~ʁ	

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[1] Excellent studies are available on the Mandarin sound system. See John de Francis, Beginning Chinese (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1946), pp. 1-14; Yuen Ren Chao; Mandarin Primer (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1961), Part I, Chapter II, and Part II; Charles F. Hockett, Progressive Exercises in Chinese Pronunciation (New Haven: Institute of Far Eastern Languages, Yale University, 1961).

[2] Adapted from Yuen Ren Chao, Mandarin Primer (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1961), p. 19.

Converted into the commonly used Yale system, the above tabulation appears as follows:

	Unaspirated stop	Aspirated stop	Nasals	Fricative	Voiced continuants	Semivowels
Labials	b	p	m	f		w
Dentals	d	t	n		l	
Dental sibilants	dz	ts		s		
Retroflexes	j(r)	ch(r)		sh(r)	r	
Palatals	j(i, y-)	ch(i, y-)		ss(y)		y
Gutturals	g	k	(ng)	h	O	

These sounds approximately resemble the following sounds in general American English:

Yale	IPA	American English
b	b̥	Like p in "spy"
d	d̥	Like t in "stone"
dz	ts	Like dz in "adze"
j (r)	tʂ	Like ch in "chair," but with the tongue curled back near the front part of the palate and without the puff of air (unaspirated)
j	tɕ	Like j in "jeer"
g	g̊	Like k in "sky" (unaspirated)
p	p^h	Like p in "pie"
t	t^h	Like t in "tie"
ts	ts^h	Like ts in "its"
ch(r)	tʂ^h	Like ch in "chair," but with the tongue curled back near the front part of the palate and with the puff of air (aspirated)
ch (i, y-)	tɕ^h	Like ch in "cheer"
k	k^h	Like c in "coop"

m	m	Like m in "man"
n	n	Like n in "no"
f	f	Like f in "father"
s	s	Like s in "sigh"
sh(r)	ʂ	Like sh in "shoe," but with the tongue curled back near the front of the palate
s(y)	ɕ	Pronounced with the tip of the tongue against the back of the lower teeth and the back part of the tongue against the palate
h	X	Like h in "how"
l	l	Like l in "like"
r	ɹ	Like r in "ran," but with tongue curled back
O	O	Zero consonant--any syllable starting with a vowel, as in air
w	u	Like w in "would"
y	j	Like y in "year"

Finals

A final of a syllable is the syllable minus the initial. It may consist of a single vowel, two vowels, a vowel plus ng, or a semivowel plus a vowel plus ng; as -a in ya, -ei in mei, -ang in chang, and -wang or -uang in chwang. Some Chinese syllables consist of only vowels, as in ai.

Finals described in the Yale system are as follows:

z, r	a	e	ai	ei	au	ou	an	en	ang	eng	-ung	r
i	ya	ye	(yai)		yau	you	yan	yin -in	yang	ing	yung	
u	wa	wo	wai	wei			wan	wen -wun	wang	weng		
yu		ywe					ywan	yun				

Finals described in the IPA system are as follows:

z̩, ɹ̩	A̳	ɤ	ai	ei	ɑu	ou	an	ən	ɑŋ	ʌŋ	Δŋ	ɚ
i	iA̳	iɛ	iai		iɑu	iou	iɛn	in	iɑŋ	iŋ	iΔŋ	
u	uA̳	uɤ	uai	uei			uan	uən	uɑŋ	uʌŋ		
y		yɛ					yan	yn				

Finals compared with general American English and other common sounds in Western European language are as follows:

-z	Like z in "lazy"
-r	Same as retroflexes r in the initial
-a	Like a in "father"
-ai	Like ie in "pie"
-au	Like ou in "loud"
-an	Like an in Ghengis Khan
-ang	Like an in "dance" (British pronunciation)
-e	Like ye in "yet" when preceded by y-, yw-; elsewhere like o in "none"
-ei	Like ei in "eight"
-en	Like un in "fun" or un in "under"
-eng	Like ung in "sung"
-i	Like ea in "eat"
-in	Like in in "fin"
-ing	Like ing in "sing"
-o	Like o in "corn"; only with w, as in wo
-ou	Like ow in "low"
-u	Like o in "who"
-ung	Like oon in "raccoon"
-ya	Like ya in "yacht"
-ye	Like ye in "yes"
-yu	Like French u or German ü
yau	Like (i)ow in "miaow"
-you	Like yo in "yodle"
-yan	Like yan in "banyan"
-yun	German u plus n
-yang	Like the word "young"
-yung	German u plus ng
-wa	Like wa in "wash"

-wo	Pronounced as u plus aw in "law"
-wai	Like the letter "y"
-wei	Like wai in "wait"
-wan	Like the word "one"
-wun	When the syllable -wen is used as a final, the e in wen changes to u
-wang	Like Wong, a Cantonese surname
-ywe	Like French u plus e in met
-ywan	u plus an as in "Khan"

Tones

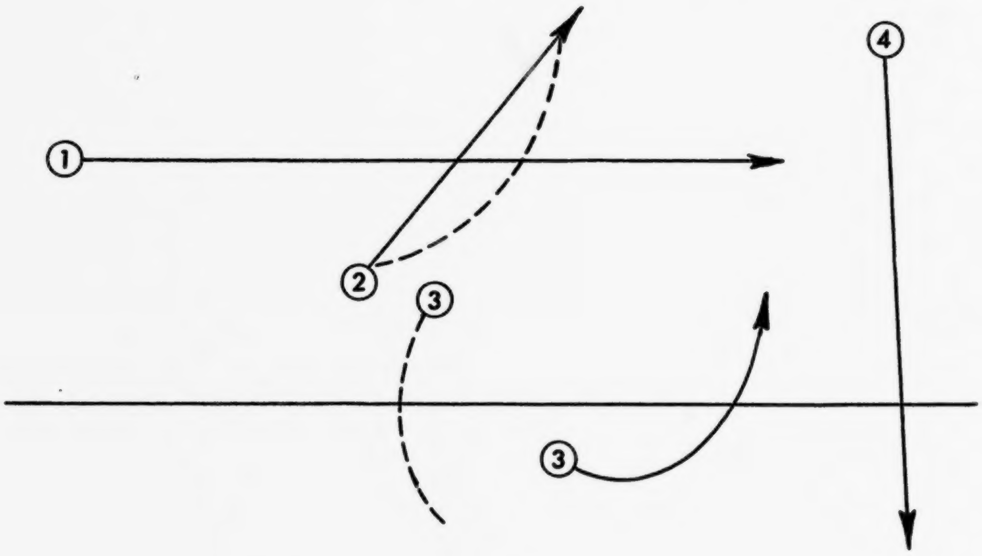
In English, although pitch movement is not an integral element of a single morpheme, pitch differences can affect the meaning of an utterance. The simple word "yes," for example, can be pronounced to suggest assent, or a question, or some skepticism, depending on whether it is pronounced with a tone of finality, or a rising tone, or a dip in the middle.

In Chinese, tone--in the sense of pitch--is even more important. Ma pronounced with a level pitch means "mother"; with a rising pitch, it means "hemp"; with a dipping pitch, it means "house"; and with a falling pitch, it means "scold." Although, in natural speech, only the stressed syllables in a sentence are pronounced with clearly identifiable tones, each syllable theoretically has its own fixed tone. The four tones in Mandarin are, briefly, as follows:

- First tone: high and level (¯), as in tā
- Second tone: high and rising (´), as in shéi
- Third tone: (ˇ) varies according to these patterns
    1. Low dipping and then rising at the end of a phrase or when pronounced in isolation, as in dzǎu
    2. Resembling a second tone, when it appears before third tone syllable; thus Nǐ dzǎu becomes Ní dzǎu
    3. Relatively low dipping, without the rising ending when it appears before a first, second, or fourth tone (see 3' in diagram on the next page), as in hěn, máng, lǎushŕ

- Fourth tone: falling from high to low (ˋ) as in shr̀

The positional descriptions of the tones, i.e., high, low, rising, falling, are relative to the voice range of the speaker. Diagramed, the four tones appear as follows:



The negative prefix bù is an example of the tonal variations possible when the syllables occur in certain combinations. Bù is normally pronounced with a falling tone except when it is followed by another falling tone, in which case, it changes to a rising tone: bùmáng, búshr̀.

When a syllable is not stressed in a sentence, its tone is less distinct and is commonly referred to as a neutral tone or toneless. An unstressed syllable usually is not marked in the transcription. In natural speech, only the tones of a few stressed syllables in any given sentence are clearly identifiable; the rest tend to become more or less neutral.

Appendix C

Structural Patterns of Mandarin

The following description of the structure of Mandarin is intended to be not a complete analysis of the grammar but rather an aid to the teacher if he finds it necessary to explain certain grammatical features in nontechnical terms.[1]

Words and Word Functions

In Chinese, a word's position in a sentence determines its meaning or function. Any forced application of the traditional English parts of speech to Mandarin words leads only to confusion. The analysis adopted here is based principally on the actual function of each word in a given sentence. The use of such traditional grammatical terms as "noun," "verb," and "adverb" is purely a matter of expediency.

Nouns

A word is a noun if it can appear after a "specifier," such as *jèi* ("this"), *nèi* ("that"), *něi* ("which"), and the like, or a number plus a specifier. Sometimes a noun, with or without an adjectival suffix, may function as qualifier of another noun, e.g., *Jūnggwo shū* ("Chinese book"). A noun shows no distinction of number, case, or gender.

Expressions of Measurement

A "measure" is a counter or a classifier which appears between a number or a specifier and a noun; it functions somewhat like the word "bar" in the phrase "a bar of soap," or in Chinese, the *kwài* in *yi kwàizféid àu*. There are many such expressions of measurement in Chinese, each accompanying a definite noun. These must be learned individually.

Verbs

Several groups of words behave like verbs in Chinese. They differ from English verbs in that they normally show no tense. Hence, Wo kàn dyànshr may mean any of the following things, depending upon the context: "I (customarily) watch television"; "I am watching television"; "I watched television"; or "I am going to watch television."

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[1] For detailed discussions of Mandarin grammar, see Yuen Ren Chao, *A Grammar of Spoken Chinese* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1966), and *Mandarin Primer*.

A word is identified as a verb if, in normal use, it can take the negative adverb bù (or méi in the case of yǒu) and the suffix -le. The different functions of transitive and intransitive verbs depend most frequently upon the objects of the verbs rather than upon the verbs themselves.

"Action" Verbs. Action verbs are verbs that cannot be modified by adverbs of degree such as hěn and gèng. Such common words as "walk," "eat," "read," and so forth, belong to this group.

Compound Verbs. Several types of compound verbs are used in Chinese. Each compound construction can be explained as a verb plus either a "coverb" or a "verb complement." One rather unique type of compound verb in Chinese is the "resultative" compound, e.g., dzwòwán, where dzwò- refers to the action while -wán indicates the result of the action: finishing the job. Hence, the term "resultative."

Coverbs. Two or more words often function as verbs in the same Chinese sentence. Most grammarians identify the second verb, which depicts the main action, as the "main" verb, while the other verbs, usually introducing a circumstantial element and thus providing a setting for the main action, are described as "coverbs." In Wo dzài jyā li kànshū ("I study at home"), the phrase dzài jyā li provides the setting for the main action, "study." Therefore, dzài is regarded as a coverb. Clearly, the coverbial phrase functions as an adverbial phrase, but it always precedes the main verb. Compared with English, the coverbial phrase also serves as a prepositional phrase.

Auxiliary Verbs. A number of Chinese verbs function in much the same way as their English equivalents, e.g., néng ("to be able to") yīnggāi or děi ("must"). Others whose equivalents in English are regular verbs may also appear as "auxiliary" verbs in Chinese, e.g., ài ("to be fond of") and ywànyi ("to be willing to"). All auxiliary verbs can be regarded as verbs with the other verbs following them as their objects. Thus, Ta néng shwōhwa ("He can talk") and Ta ài shwōhwa ("He likes to talk") are really parallel constructions, with the auxiliary verbs néng and ài functioning as verbs and *shwōhwa* as their direct object in both cases. An auxiliary verb does not take the suffix *-le*; and in a choice-type question, it is the auxiliary verb that is repeated. For example: *Ni néng buneng chyù*? ("Can you go?" or, "You cannot, can, go?") is correct--not, *Ni néng chyù buchyu*? ("You can go, not go?").

Other Verbs. The unique behavior of a few Chinese verbs has caused grammarians to give them a variety of names. For instance, the verb *shr̀*, usually translated into the English as the word "be," functions most commonly in Chinese as a copula. Hence this verb has been known as an "equative" verb. The verbs *dāng* ("to serve as") and *dzwò* ("to act as"), also suggest, but do not quite put an equation mark between, the subject and the object; they are known to some grammarians as "classifactory" verbs. Actually, however, they are not very different from any other regular Chinese verbs, which can be either transitive or intransitive, depending upon their object or lack of one.

Adjectives

Chinese adjectives function as verbs. Because they describe either a state of affairs or the quality of the subject, they are referred to by some grammarians as "stative" verbs or "quality" verbs. For example, "Houses are expensive" becomes "Houses expensive" (*fángdz gwèi*) in Chinese, with the word "expensive" functioning as a verb. But in *dà fángdz* ("big houses") the word "big" (*dà*) functions as a modifier, just as nouns and verbs sometimes do.

Adverbs

Adverbs qualify a verbal expression, single or compounded. The *hěn* in *hěn máng* ("very busy") is a "fixed" adverb, because it has to precede the verb immediately. Adverbs like *yàushr*, *swéiran*, etc., are called "movable" adverbs, because they can appear immediately before the verb or even before the subject. Hence, *Wo yàushr chyù* is the same as *Yàushr wo chyù*.

Special Word Functions

There are a few--but not many--rather unusual Chinese word functions. Special categories include adjectives, described above, and the following phrases, expressions of purpose, position words, "bound" morphemes, and compounds.

Coverbial Phrases Functioning as Adverbial Phrases. The coverbs dzài ("be at," "be in," etc.), gēn ("follow," "be with"), and several others often introduce phrases which function as adverbial expressions qualifying verbs. The phrase dzài jyā li in Ta dzài jyā li kànshū ("He reads at home"; "He is at home reading") is an example. Often a sentence may contain several coverbial phrases, each describing one aspect of the action designated by the main verb.

Expressions of Purpose Functioning as Complements. English infinitives often appear in Chinese as expressions of purpose following main verbs. There is no infinitive prefix "to" in Chinese; therefore, the complement "to buy books" in "He goes to town to buy books" becomes the expression of purpose mǎi shū in Ta dàu chéng li chyù mǎi shū.

Position Words Serving Special Word Functions. There are no prepositions in Chinese. In order to indicate location, one must use the verb dzài plus a position word which identifies the space. Thus, "The book is on the table" becomes Shū dzài jwōdz (de) shàngtou. The phrase jwōdz (de) shàngtou or more commonly, jwōdz shang, literally means "top of the table," which refers to the space on the table. The place word shàngtou is composed of the localizer shàng ("on") and the noun tou ("head," "end," "tip"). Since a space can contain or possess things, "There are books on the table" becomes Jwōdz shang yǒu shū ("The top of the table possesses books"). In this case, "the top of the table" becomes the subject, which takes the predicate of "has books."

Particles, Suffixes, Prefixes

These are morphemes which, although they occasionally stand alone with their own meanings, most often appear as "bound" morphemes, attached to another word or phrase to supplement the meaning of the latter.

One type of particle in Chinese merits particular attention. It appears at the end of a sentence and functions as a modal adjunct. Thus, the word a in Ni hǎu a makes the greeting slightly exclamatory or interrogatory, and the ne in Shémma ne? gives the question a milder tone.

An example of common noun prefixes is the ordinalizer: dìyī ("the first"), chūsān ("the third day of the month"), and so forth.

Several noun suffixes appear most frequently in colloquialisms-- -*ba* in *yǐba* ("tail"); others, however, are regular features of standard Mandarin-- -*tou* in *shŕtou* ("stone"). One noun suffix produces a dimunitive effect-- *r* in *hwār* ("flower"). The most important verb suffix is -*le*, which indicates the completion of an action; and often indicates a changed situation or status when it appears as a phrase or sentence particle.

Compounds

Despite the common misconception that Chinese is a monosyllabic language, natural Chinese speech involves more polysyllabic words than monosyllabic words, although almost every syllable constitutes a morpheme. In the following discussion "words" refers to syntactical words, which may be either monosyllabic basic constituents of the Chinese speech or a polysyllabic combination of two or more morphemes. For example, *jwō* is a morpheme, while *jwōdz* is a syntactical word. Syntactical words, each containing two or more morphemes, are called "compounds." The bulk of the Chinese vocabulary consists of compounds, which can be classified in many ways. [2] Two general types of compounds, however, can be treated simply as separate polysyllabic words and learned as such: (1) the compound whose components almost never appear independently in normal speech, e.g., *rènshr* ("to recognize"); and (2) the compound whose meaning is lexically independent of the meanings of its compounds, e.g., *dyǎn* ("dot," "touch"), and *syin* ("heart")--but *dyansyin* ("refreshment"). The components of the second type of compound are common words, but the compound they form must be learned as a new lexical item.

Sentences

Just as sentences may appear very irregular and even only one word can be a sentence in English, Chinese sentences also may show many variations. Grammarians have indicated certain general characteristics of the Mandarin structure, but they do not always agree upon the basic Mandarin sentence patterns. The following analyses of Mandarin patterns, therefore, unavoidably contain elements of arbitrary choice.

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[2] For a detailed discussion on compounds, see Chao, *Mandarin Primer*, pp. 41-44.

General Principles

The most basic Chinese sentence follows the regular English order of subject-verb-object. The Chinese qualifier always precedes the qualified; hence no relative pronoun exists. "This is the book which you gave me yesterday" literally becomes, in Chinese, "This is you gave me yesterday's book."

One Chinese sentence pattern unusual in English is the nominal predicate, e.g., Ta wǔswèi (literally, "He five years in age"). This common type of sentence, together with adjectives frequently functioning as verbs, gives Chinese its "pidgin" flavor when translated literally into English.

Compound and Complex Sentences

Frequent use of coverbs may tend to give the Chinese language a complexity which is more apparent than real. In general, the Chinese prefer simple sentences. If the speaker of Chinese wishes to say the equivalent of a long, complex English sentence, he usually breaks it up into short, simple sentences. Since simple verbs serve the functions of prepositions and infinitives, which do not exist in Chinese, the Chinese sentence tends to give the effect of an English sentence with all excess words removed. In Chinese, "I forgot to tell him how to buy a ticket to see a show" becomes something like "I forgot tell him how buy ticket see show."

Subject and Predicate

As in English, the most common type of Chinese sentence consists of a subject and a predicate. However, there are several important differences. In English, the subject is most often the performer of the action denoted by the verb in the predicate. In Chinese, the subject serves simply as the topic or subject matter of the sentence and the predicate as the comment or new information given about that subject.

In the sentence Ta kàn dyànshr, ta is the subject or topic of the sentence and kàn dyànshr the predicate or comment. One translation might be "As for him, he watches television." Although a sentence of this type closely parallels, "He watches television," the usefulness of the analysis becomes apparent in a sentence like Jèige dìfāng méiyou rén. It is very convenient to consider jèige difang as the subject and méiyou rén as the predicate. The translation could then be, "As for this place, there are no people."

This construction has two important consequences:

- The place words and the time words very often used as subjects in Chinese have to be translated into preposition or adverbial expressions in English. In idiomatic English, the preceding Chinese sentence would read, "There is nobody here." In the sentence Míngtyan búchỳu, míngtyan is the subject and búchỳu is the predicate. Normally, this sentence would be translated into English as "Tomorrow I'm not going," the word "tomorrow" serving as an adverb.

- A Chinese sentence may be regarded as having more than one subject. In Míngtyān ta búchyù, míngtyan is the subject and ta búchỳu is the predicate: "As for tomorrow, he's not going." In this case, "tomorrow" is the principal subject and "he's not going" is the comment. In turn, the predicate of this sentence consists of another subject and predicate, namely ta and búchỳu. This pattern of sentences with two subjects has further variations. It is useful, therefore, to remember that the connection between subject and predicate in Chinese appears much looser than it is in English and that Chinese sentences very often can be analyzed as having more than one subject.

Sentence Patterns

The abbreviations listed below are used in describing the sentence patterns that follow.

A	Adverb
Adj	Adjective
AV	Auxiliary verb
CV	Coverb
dirO	Direct object
IE	Idiomatic expression
indO	Indirect object
intrV	Intransitive verb
M	Measure
MA	Movable adverb
N	Noun
neg	Negative
Nu	Number
O	Object
O_1	First object
O_2	Second object
PE	Purpose expression
proN	Pronoun
PW	Place word
QW	Question word
RV	Resultative compound verb
S	Subject
S_1	First subject
S_2	Second subject
Sp	Specifier
TW	Time word
V	Verb
VO	Verb-object compound

1. S V O		
S V O	Wŏ kàn shū. 我看書	I read book. (I read books.)
O S V	Shū wŏ kàn. 書我看	Book I read. (Books I read.)
S AV V O	Wŏ yàu kàn shū. 我要看書	I want read book. (I want to read books.)
S dzai PW	Tā dzài lĭtou. 他在裏頭	He at inside. (He is inside.)
PW you N	Jèr yŏu shū. 這兒有書	Here have books. (There are books here.)
S V O/S V	Wŏ chĭng nĭ lái. 我請你來	I ask you come. (I ask you to come.)
2. S V indO dirO	Tā géi wŏ chyán. 他給我錢	He give I money. (He gives me money.)
3. S shr N	Wŏ shr̀ rén. 我是人	I be man. (I am a man.)
4. S V		
S intrV	Wŏ chyù. 我去	I go. (I go.)
S AV intrV	Wŏ yàu chyù. 我要去	I want go. (I want to go.)
S Adj	Tă pyàulyang. 他漂亮	He elegant. (He is elegant.)

S A Adj	Tā hěn pyàulyang. 他很漂亮	He very elegant. (He is very elegant.)
S AV compound	Jèige dż nánsyě. 這個字難寫	This word difficult write. (This word is difficult to write.)
S A AV compound	Jèige dż hěn nánsyě. 這個字很難寫	This word very difficult write. (This word is very difficult to write.)

5. S CV O V

S CV OV (PE)	Tā dzwò chē chyù 他坐車去 (mǎi shū). 買書	He ride car go buy book. (He goes by car to buy books.)
S CV PW V (PE)	Wǒ dàu sywésyàu 我到學校 chyù (nyànshū). 去	I go school, go read book. (I go to school to study.)
S CV PW CV PW V (PE)	Wǒ tsúng Jūnggwo dàu 我從中國到 Měigwo lai (nyànshū). 美國來念書	I from China to America come read book. (I come from China to study in America.)

S V PE	Wŏ chyù kàn bàu. 我 去 看 報	I go read newspaper. (I am going to read the newspaper.)
S V/CV PW V	Wŏ hwéi-dàu 我 回 到 Jūnggwo chyu. 中 國 去	I return to China go. (I am returning to China.)
Ba construction	Wó bă dz̆dyan gĕi tā. 我把字典 給 他	I seize dictionary give him. (I give him the dictionary.)

Sentence Forms

1. Question Forms

With ma	Nĭ máng ma? 你 忙 嗎	You busy. (Are you busy?)
Neg	Nĭ bùmáng ma? 你 不 忙 嗎	You not busy. (Are you busy?)
With QW	Nĭ shr̀ shéi? 你 是 誰	You are who. (Who are you?)
Choice-type		
S V negV	Nĭ chyù buchyù? 你 去 不 去	You go, not go? (Are you going?)
S V negVO	Nĭ chr̄ buchr̄ fàn? 你 吃 不 吃 飯	You eat, not eat, meal? (Will you eat?)

S V· O negV	Nǐ chr̄fàn bùchr̄? 你 吃飯不吃	You eat meal, not eat? (Will you eat?)
$S_1 V S_2 V$	Nǐ chyù, wǒ chyù? 你 去 我 去	You go, I go? (Will you go or shall I?)
S V O_1 V O_2	Nǐ syǐhwān jūròu, 你 喜歡 豬肉 syǐhwan nyóuròu? 喜歡 牛 肉	You like pork, like beef? (Which do you like, pork or beef?)
(shr) S V (O) (ne), haishr V (O) (ne)	Nǐmen chr̄ fàn, háishr 你們吃 飯 還是 chr̄ myànbāu? 吃 麵包	You eat rice, eat bread? (Will you eat rice or bread?)
N ne	Nǐ ne? 你 哪	You? (How about you, or, And you?)

2. Negative Forms

Bu	Wǒ búchyù. 我 不 去	I not go. (I am not going.)
Mei	Wò méiyǒu. 我 没 有	I have not. (I have no . . . . or I have not.)

3. Passive Forms

Bei	Fàn bèi tā chr̄le. 飯 被 他 吃了	Rice by he eaten. (The rice was eaten by him.)

Jyau	Fàn jyàu tā chr̄le. 飯叫他吃了	(The rice was eaten by him.)
Rang	Fàn ràng tā chr̄le. 飯讓他吃了	(The rice was eaten by him.)
Gei	Fàn gěi tā chr̄le. 飯給他吃了	(The rice was eaten by him.)

Attributive Constructions

1. Nu- M N	sānběn shū 三本書	three books
2. Sp- M N	jèiběn shū 這本書	this book
3. Sp Nu- M N	jèi sānběn shū 這三本書	these three books
4. N Sp- M N	nǐ nèiběn shū 你那本書	that book of yours
	Lǎushr̄ nèiběn shū 老師那本書	that book of the teacher
	dzwobyār nèiběn shū 左邊兒那本書	the book to the left
5. N-de N	Lǎushr̄de shū 老師的書	the teacher's book
proN-de N	wǒde shū 我的書	my book
PW-de N	lǐtoude shū 裏頭的書	the book inside

TW-de N	sāndyănde chē 三點的車	the three o'clock train
6. (A) Adj-de N	hén hăude shū 很好的書	very good books
7. N N	Wáng Lăushr̄ 王老師	Mr. Wang
	wó jyĕjye 我姐姐	my sister
8. N PW	Mĕi-fāng nèr 美芳那兒	at Mei-fang's place?
	wŏ jèr 我這兒	at my place, or, with me
9. S V-de N	tā jyède shū 他借的書	the book he borrowed
10. V (O)-de N	jyè shūde sywésheng 借書的學生	the student who borrows books
11. N (adj)-de	wŏde 我的	my, mine
	jèrde 這兒的	that which is here
	Mĕi-fāngde 美芳的	Mei-fang's
	húngde 紅的	red
12. Adj N	syīn shū 新書	new book

Construction with Particles

1. V-je	Wŏ chr̄je fàn ne. 我吃着飯哪	I am eating.
	Wŏ chr̄je fàn nyànshū. 我吃着飯 念書	I read while eating.
2. V-gwo	Wŏ chr̄gwo Jūnggwo fàn. 我吃過 中國 飯	I have had Chinese food before.
	Wŏ dzwótyan chr̄gwole. 我 昨天 吃過了	I ate it yesterday.
3. Shr ... de	Jèibĕn shr̀ tā syĕde. 這本 是 他寫的	This volume was written by him.
	Wŏ shr̀ dzwótyan láide. 我是 昨 天 來的	I came yesterday.

	Wǒ shr̀ chyùnyan lǐkāi 我是去年 離開 Jūnggwo de. 中國的	I left China last year.
	Wǒ shr̀ chyùnyan 我是去年 lǐkāide Jūnggwo. 離開的中國	I left China last year.

4. -Le

Completed action	Wǒ kànle. 我看了	I saw it, or, I read it.
	Wǒ kànle shū le. 我看了書了	I have read books.
Changed status	Wǒ èle. 我餓了	I am hungry.
	Wǒ bùnéng chr̄ ròu le. 我不能吃肉了	I cannot eat any more meat.
Imminent change of status	Fàn kwài hǎule. 飯快好了	Dinner is about ready.
Imminent action	Wǒ děi chyù chr̄fànle. 我得去吃飯了	I must go to eat.

5. Ne

Questions	Wǒ chr̄ ròu. Nǐ ne? 我吃肉 你呢?	I will have meat. What about you?
	Nǐ sùng shémma lǐ ne? 你送 甚麼禮呢?	What present will you bring with you?
	Nǐ chyù ne, háishr búchyù? 你去呢 還是 不去?	Will you go or not?
Continuance	Tā dzài wár ne. 他在 玩兒哪	He is playing.

6. Ba

Probability	Tā hwèi chyù ba. 他會 去吧	He probably will go.
Request	Nǐ bǎiyibǎi jwōdz ba. 你擺一擺 棹子吧	Please set the table.

Expressions of Time

1. Time--When

Time words	Wǒ jīntyan wǎnshang chyù. 我今天 晚上 去	I will go tonight.

-de shrhou	Wǒ chyùde shŕhou... 我去的時候	when I go
Yichyan; yihou	Wǒ lái yǐchyán... 我來以前	before I come
	Wǒ lái yǐhòu... 我來以後	after I come
2. Time--spent		
Time words	Wǒ dzài nèr jùle 我在那兒住了 lyǎngnyán. 兩年	I lived there for two years.
	Wǒ dzài nèr jùle 我在那兒住了 lyǎngnyán le. 兩年了	I have already lived there for two years.
Nu-M N(-de)	Wǒ kànle yíge 我看了一個 jūngtoude shū (le). 鐘頭的書	I have read for an hour.
Adverbs	Wǒ láile hén jyǒu. 我來了很久	I have been here for a long time.
3. Frequency		
Tsz	Wǒ dzwòle sāntsz̀ 我坐了三次 fēijī. 飛機	I have been in an airplane three times.

Hwei	Wŏ dzwòle sānhwéi 我坐了三回 fēijī le. 飛機了	I have been in an airplane three times.
Nu-M (N)	Wŏ sāngeywè chyù 我三個月去 yĭtsz̀. 一次	I go once every three months.

Expressions of Degree

1. Degrees with gen and dzwei	Tā gèng pyàulyang. 他更漂亮	He is even more handsome.
	Tā dzwèi pyàulyang. 他最漂亮	He is most handsome
2. Descriptive (adverbial) complements	Tā chr̄de kwài. 他吃的快	He eats very fast.
3. Comparisons		
Bi	Tā bĭ wŏ gāu. 他比我高	He is taller than I.
-de dwo	Tā kàn shū bĭ wŏ 他看書比我 kànde dwō. 看的多	He reads more than I do.
Yidyar	Wó bĭ tā hău yĭdyăr. 我比他好一點兒	I am a little better than he.

Sp Nu-M, ...	Jèi lyǎngge, 這兩個 húngde hǎu. 紅的好	Of these two, the red one is better.

4. Similarities

Gen ... yiyang	Jèige gēn nèige 這個跟那個 yíyàng. 一樣	This is the same as that.
You ... nemma	Wǒ yǒu tā nèmma gāu. 我有他那麼高	I am as tall as he.

5. Distance	Jèr lí nèr ywǎn. 這兒離那兒遠	It's far from here to there.
	Jèr lí nèr yǒu sānlǐ. 這兒離那兒有三里	It's about one mile from here to there.

Appendix D

Additional Sources of Information

California State Department of Education, 721 Capitol Mall, Sacramento, Calif. 95814

Carnegie Chinese Project, San Francisco State College, 1600 Holloway Avenue, San Francisco, Calif. 94132 (Directors: Kai-yu Hsu and Henry Yang)

Carnegie-Supported Asian Language Program, Seton Hall University, South Orange, N.J. 07079 (Director: John B. Tsu)

Carnegie-Supported Asian Language Program, Thayer Academy, Braintree, Mass. 02184 (Director: Gordon Thayer)

Carnegie-Supported Asian Language Program, University of Southern California, University Park, Los Angeles, Calif. 90007 (Director: Theodore H. E. Chen)

Carnegie-Supported Asian Language Program, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo. 63130 (Director: Stanley Spector)

Chinese Language Teachers Association (Editor of the Journal: Mrs. Allyn Rickett, c/o Department of Asian Studies, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa. 19104)

Columbia University High School Chinese Program, Kent Hall, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. 10027 (Director: Russell Maeth)

Modern Language Materials Center, Modern Language Association, 4 Washington Place, New York, N.Y. 10003 (Director: John Harmon)

Chart of Romanization Systems

國語注音符號羅馬字拉丁字對照表

INITIALS 聲母 (表一) 韻母 FINALS					唇音 (兩唇)(唇齒)				舌尖一上齒				舌根一 軟顎			前舌面 一齦			舌尖後 硬顎(翹舌)				舌尖前 一齦(平舌)		
				CP	ㄅ	ㄆ	ㄇ	ㄈ	ㄉ	ㄊ	ㄋ	ㄌ	ㄍ	ㄎ	ㄏ	ㄐ	ㄑ	ㄒ	ㄓ	ㄔ	ㄕ	ㄖ	ㄗ	ㄘ	ㄙ
				W-G	p	p'	m	f	t	t'	n	l	k	k'	h	ch	ch'	hs	ch	ch'	sh	j	ts	ts'	s
				Lat	b	p	m	f	d	t	n	l	g	k	h	j	q	x	zh	ch	sh	r	z	c	s
	CP	W-G	Lat	Y	b	p	m	f	d	t	n	l	g	k	h	j	ch	sy[10] s	j	ch	sh	r	dz	ts	s
單	ㄚ	a	a	a	八	怕	馬	法	大	他	拿	拉	戛	咖	哈				炸	查	沙		匝	擦	撒
韻	ㄜ	e,o[1]	e	e					德	特	呢	了	各	可	喝				遮	車	舍	熱	則	冊	色
複	ㄞ	ai	ai	ai	拜	派	買		代	太	乃	來	該	開	孩				摘	拆	晒		災	猜	賽
	ㄟ	ei	ei	ei	杯	陪	沒	非	得		內	累	給		黑				這		誰		賊		
	ㄠ	ao	ao	au	包	砲	毛		到	逃	腦	老	高	考	好				召	抄	少	繞	早	草	掃
韻	ㄡ	ou	ou	ou		剖	某	否	都	頭	耨	樓	夠	扣	後				周	抽	收	柔	走	湊	搜
聲	ㄢ	an	an	an	半	盤	滿	反	但	談	南	藍	乾	看	汗				佔	產	山	然	贊	參	三
隨	ㄣ	en	en	en	本	盆	門	分			嫩		根	肯	很				真	沉	深	人	怎	岑	森
韻	ㄤ	ang	ang	ang	邦	旁	忙	方	當	堂	囊	郎	剛	康	航				張	唱	上	讓	髒	倉	桑
母	ㄥ	eng	eng	eng	崩	朋	盟	風	燈	疼	能	冷	更	坑	橫				正	成	生	仍	增	層	僧
齊齒呼及其結合韻母	ㄧ	i	i	i	比	皮	米		低	替	你	力				雞	七	西							
	ㄧㄚ	ia	ia	ya								倆				加	掐	下							
	ㄧㄞ	iai	iai	yai																					
	ㄧㄝ	ieh	ie	ye	別	撇	滅		跌	鐵	捏	列				姐	且	寫							
	ㄧㄠ	iao	iao	yau	表	票	妙		掉	跳	鳥	料				交	巧	小							
	ㄧㄡ	iu	iu	you			謬		丟		牛	六				九	秋	休							
	ㄧㄢ	ien	ian	yan	便	片	面		點	天	年	連				尖	千	先							
	ㄧㄣ	in	in	in	賓	拚	民				您	林				今	親	心							
	ㄧㄤ	iang	iang	yang							娘	良				江	槍	相							
	ㄧㄥ	ing	ing	ing	兵	平	明		定	停	寧	另				京	青	星							
合口呼及其結合韻母	ㄨ	u	u	u	不	鋪	母	父	毒	土	奴	路	古	苦	胡				主	出	書	入	足	粗	俗
	ㄨㄚ	ua	ua	wa									瓜	誇	花				抓	欻	刷				
	ㄨㄛ	uo[3] o	o[6] uo	wo	玻	頗	摩	佛	多	拖	挪	羅	鍋	闊	或				桌	戳	說	弱	坐	錯	所
	ㄨㄞ	uai	uai	wai									怪	快	壞				拽	揣	摔				
	ㄨㄟ	ui[4] uei	ui	wei					堆	推			規	虧	灰				追	吹	水	瑞	最	崔	歲
	ㄨㄢ	uan	uan	wan					短	團	暖	亂	官	寬	歡				專	穿	閂	軟	鑽	篡	算
	ㄨㄣ	un	un	wun					頓	吞		論	滾	困	混				准	春	順	閏	尊	寸	孫
	ㄨㄤ	uang	uang	wang									光	狂	黃				莊	窗	双				
	ㄨㄥ	ung	ung	ung					東	同	農	龍	公	空	紅				中	虫		容	宗	從	松
撮口呼及其結合韻母	ㄩ	ü	yu, ü u[7]	yu							女	呂				居	曲	須							
	ㄩㄝ	üeh	yue, üe ue[8]	ywe							虐	略				決	缺	學							
	ㄩㄢ	üan	üan yuan uan[9]	ywan								孿				捐	全	宣							
	ㄩㄣ	ün	un	yun												軍	群	迅							
	ㄩㄥ	iung	iong	yung												窘	窮	兄							
	ㄦ	erh	er	er[11]	(捲舌韻母)																				

有韻母無聲母 (表二

FINALS WITHOUT INITIALS

(ROMANIZATION, LATINIZATION)

W-G	Lat	Y	CP
a	a	a	ㄚ
e,o[1]	e	e	ㄜ
ai	ai	ai	ㄞ
ei	ei	ei	ㄟ
ao	ao	au	ㄠ
ou	ou	ou	ㄡ
an	an	an	ㄢ
en	en	en	ㄣ
ang	ang	ang	ㄤ
eng	eng	eng	ㄥ
i[2] yi	yi	yi	ㄧ
ya	ya	ya	ㄧㄚ
yai	yai	yai	ㄧㄞ
yeh	ye	ye	ㄧㄝ
yao	yao	yau	ㄧㄠ
yu	you	you	ㄧㄡ
yen	yan	yan	ㄧㄢ
yin	yin	yin	ㄧㄣ
yang	yang	yang	ㄧㄤ
ying	ying	ying	ㄧㄥ
wu	wu	wu	ㄨ
wa	wa	wa	ㄨㄚ
wo	wo	wo	ㄨㄛ
wai	wai	wai	ㄨㄞ
wei	wei	wei	ㄨㄟ
wan	wan	wan	ㄨㄢ
wen	wen	wen	ㄨㄣ
wang	wang	wang	ㄨㄤ
weng	weng	weng	ㄨㄥ
yü	yu	yu	ㄩ
yüeh	yue	ywe	ㄩㄝ
yüan	yuan	ywan	ㄩㄢ
yün	yun	yun	ㄩㄣ
yung	yong	yung	ㄩㄥ
erh	er	er	ㄦ

Chart of Romanization Systems

國語注音符號羅馬字拉丁字對照表

聲母 INITIALS 韻母 FINALS （表一）					唇音				舌尖一上齒				舌根一			前舌面			舌尖後				舌尖前		
					（兩唇）（唇齒）								軟顎			一齦			硬顎(翹舌)				一齦(平舌)		
				CP	ㄅ	ㄆ	ㄇ	ㄈ	ㄉ	ㄊ	ㄋ	ㄌ	ㄍ	ㄎ	ㄏ	ㄐ	ㄑ	ㄒ	ㄓ	ㄔ	ㄕ	ㄖ	ㄗ	ㄘ	ㄙ
				W-G	p	p'	m	f	t	t'	n	l	k	k'	h	ch	ch'	hs	ch	ch'	sh	j	ts	ts'	s
				Lat	*b*	*p*	*m*	*f*	*d*	*t*	*n*	*l*	*g*	*k*	*h*	*j*	*q*	*x*	*zh*	*ch*	*sh*	*r*	*z*	*c*	*s*
	CP	W-G	*Lat*	Y	b	p	m	f	d	t	n	l	g	k	h	j	ch	sy^{10} s	j	ch	sh	r	dz	ts	s
單韻	ㄚ	a	*a*	a	八	怕	馬	法	大	他	拿	拉	嘎	咖	哈				炸	查	沙		匝	擦	撒
	ㄜ	e,o^1	*e*	e					德	特	呢	了	各	可	喝				遮	車	舍	熱	則	冊	色
複韻	ㄞ	ai	*ai*	ai	拜	派	買		代	太	乃	來	該	開	孩				摘	拆	晒		災	猜	賽
	ㄟ	ei	*ei*	ei	杯	陪	没	非	得		內	累	給		黑				這		誰		賊		
	ㄠ	ao	*ao*	au	包	砲	毛		到	逃	腦	老	高	考	好				召	抄	少	繞	早	草	掃
	ㄡ	ou	*ou*	ou		剖	某	否	都	頭	耨	樓	夠	扣	後				周	抽	收	柔	走	湊	搜
聲隨韻母	ㄢ	an	*an*	an	半	盤	滿	反	但	談	南	藍	乾	看	汗				佔	產	山	然	贊	參	三
	ㄣ	en	*en*	en	本	盆	門	分			嫩		根	肯	很				真	沉	深	人	怎	岑	森
	ㄤ	ang	*ang*	ang	邦	旁	忙	方	當	堂	囊	郎	剛	康	航				張	唱	上	讓	髒	倉	桑
	ㄥ	eng	*eng*	eng	崩	朋	盟	風	燈	疼	能	冷	更	坑	橫				正	成	生	仍	增	層	僧
齊齒呼及其結合韻母	ㄧ	i	*i*	i	比	皮	米		低	替	你	力				雞	七	西							
	ㄧㄚ	ia	*ia*	ya								倆				加	掐	下							
	ㄧㄞ	iai	*iai*	yai																					
	ㄧㄝ	ieh	*ie*	ye	別	撇	滅		跌	鐵	揑	列				姐	且	寫							
	ㄧㄠ	iao	*iao*	yau	表	票	妙		掉	跳	鳥	料				交	巧	小							
	ㄧㄡ	iu	*iu*	you			謬		丟		牛	六				九	秋	休							
	ㄧㄢ	ien	*ian*	yan	便	片	面		點	天	年	連				尖	千	先							
	ㄧㄣ	in	*in*	in	賓	拚	民				您	林				今	親	心							
	ㄧㄤ	iang	*iang*	yang							娘	良				江	槍	相							
	ㄧㄥ	ing	*ing*	ing	兵	平	明		定	停	寧	另				京	青	星							
合口	ㄨ	u	*u*	u	不	鋪	母	父	毒	土	奴	路	古	苦	胡				主	出	書	入	足	粗	俗

有韻母無聲母（表二）

FINALS WITHOUT INITIALS

(ROMANIZATION, LATINIZATION)

W-G	*Lat*	Y	CP	字
a	*a*	a	ㄚ	阿
e,o^1	*e*	e	ㄜ	俄
ai	*ai*	ai	ㄞ	愛
ei	*ei*	ei	ㄟ	欸
ao	*ao*	au	ㄠ	奧
ou	*ou*	ou	ㄡ	歐
an	*an*	an	ㄢ	安
en	*en*	en	ㄣ	恩
ang	*ang*	ang	ㄤ	骯
eng	*eng*	eng	ㄥ	鞥
i^2 yi	*yi*	yi	ㄧ	衣
ya	*ya*	ya	ㄧㄚ	牙
yai	*yai*	yai	ㄧㄞ	涯
yeh	*ye*	ye	ㄧㄝ	也
yao	*yao*	yau	ㄧㄠ	要
yu	*you*	you	ㄧㄡ	由
yen	*yan*	yan	ㄧㄢ	言
yin	*yin*	yin	ㄧㄣ	音
yang	*yang*	yang	ㄧㄤ	羊
ying	*ying*	ying	ㄧㄥ	英
wu	*wu*	wu	ㄨ	五

及其結合韻母	ㄧㄞ	iai	iai	yai																				
	ㄧㄝ	ieh	ie	ye	別	撇	滅		跌	鐵	揑	列				姐	且	寫						
	ㄧㄠ	iao	iao	yau	表	票	妙		掉	跳	鳥	料				交	巧	小						
	ㄧㄡ	iu	iu	You			謬		丢		牛	六				九	秋	休						
	ㄧㄢ	ien	ian	yan	便	片	面		點	天	年	連				尖	千	先						
	ㄧㄣ	in	in	in	賓	拚	民				您	林				今	親	心						
	ㄧㄤ	iang	iang	yang							娘	良				江	槍	相						
	ㄧㄥ	ing	ing	ing	兵	平	明		定	停	寧	另				京	青	星						
合口呼及其結合韻母	ㄨ	u	u	u	不	鋪	母	父	毒	土	奴	路	古	苦	胡				主	出	書	入	足	粗	俗
	ㄨㄚ	ua	ua	wa									瓜	誇	花				抓	欻	刷				
	ㄨㄛ	uo[3] o	o[6] uo	wo	玻	頗	摩	佛	多	拖	挪	羅	鍋	闊	或				桌	戳	說	弱	坐	錯	所
	ㄨㄞ	uai	uai	wai									怪	快	壞				拽	揣	摔				
	ㄨㄟ	ui[4] uei	ui	wei					堆	推			規	虧	灰				追	吹	水	瑞	最	崔	歲
	ㄨㄢ	uan	uan	wan					短	團	暖	亂	官	寬	歡				專	穿	閂	軟	鑽	篡	算
	ㄨㄣ	un	un	wun					頓	吞		論	滾	困	混				准	春	順	閏	尊	寸	孫
	ㄨㄤ	uang	uang	wang									光	狂	黃				莊	窗	双				
	ㄨㄥ	ung	ong	ung					東	同	農	龍	公	空	紅				中	虫		容	宗	從	松
撮口呼及其結合韻母	ㄩ	ü	yü, ü ü [7]	yu							女	呂				居	曲	須							
	ㄩㄝ	üeh	yüe, üe üe [8]	ywe							虐	略				決	缺	學							
	ㄩㄢ	üan	üan yüan üan [9]	ywan								孌				捐	全	宣							
	ㄩㄣ	ün	ün	yun												軍	群	巡							
	ㄩㄥ	iung	iong	yung												窘	窮	兄							
	ㄦ	erh	er	er[11]	(捲舌韻母)																				

yai	yai	yai	ㄧㄞ	涯
yeh	ye	ye	ㄧㄝ	也
yao	yao	yau	ㄧㄠ	要
yu	you	you	ㄧㄡ	由
yen	yan	yan	ㄧㄢ	言
yin	yin	yin	ㄧㄣ	音
yang	yang	yang	ㄧㄤ	羊
ying	ying	ying	ㄧㄥ	英
wu	wu	wu	ㄨ	五
wa	wa	wa	ㄨㄚ	瓦
wo	wo	wo	ㄨㄛ	我
wai	wai	wai	ㄨㄞ	外
wei	wei	wei	ㄨㄟ	位
wan	wan	wan	ㄨㄢ	玩
wen	wen	wen	ㄨㄣ	文
wang	wang	wang	ㄨㄤ	王
weng	weng	weng	ㄨㄥ	翁
yü	yu	yu	ㄩ	魚
yüeh	yue	ywe	ㄩㄝ	月
yüan	yuan	ywan	ㄩㄢ	元
yün	yun	yun	ㄩㄣ	云
yung	yong	yung	ㄩㄥ	永
erh	er	er	ㄦ	兒

WADE-GILES ROMANIZATION NOTES
1. Use "e" or "o" without initials or after "k,k',h"; use "e" after any other initials.
2. Use "i" or "yi" without initials.
3. Use "uo" after "k,k',h,sh"; use "o" after any other initials.
4. Use "uei" after "k',k"; use "ui" after any other initials.
5. "szu" or "ssu."

Latinization Notes

6. Use "o" after "b,p,m,f", use "uo" after any other initials.
7. Use "yu" or "ü" after "l,n", use "u" after "j,q,x"
8. Use "yue" or "üe" after "l,n", use "ue" after "j,q,x"
9. Use "yuan" or "üan" after "l", use "uan" after "j,q,x"

YALE ROMANIZATION NOTES
10. Use "sy" with "i,in,ing"; use "s" with any other finals.
11. When "er" is spelled together with other finals:
   a). With "ei,ai,an,en,in", the "i" or "n" should be dropped and then the "er"added.
   b). With "wun", the "un" should be dropped and then the "er" added.
   c). With "jr,chr,shr,tsz,sz",the "r" or "z" should be dropped and then the "er" added.
   d). With "dz" or "r". the "er" should be added.
   e). "r" should be added to any other finals. (a,e,au,ou,ang,eng,ing,i,u,yu,wo.)

INITIALS WITH ZERO FINALS (ROMANIZATION, LATINIZATION) 有聲母無韻母(表三)	CP	ㄓ	ㄔ	ㄕ	ㄖ	ㄗ	ㄘ	ㄙ
	W-G	chih	ch'ih	shih	jih	tzu	tz'u	ssu[5] szu
	Lat	zhi	chi	shi	ri	zi	ci	si
	Y	jr	chr	shr	r	dz	tsz	sz
	字	知	吃	十	日	子	此	四

PREPARED BY C.K.WU

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加州州立金山大學
暑期講習班
中國國語部
吳志鋼